The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, OCTOBER 22, 1896.

The Week.

THE statement of this country's total foreign trade during September, issued on Thursday by the Bureau of Statistics, makes without question the most remarkable showing, for the autumn season, in the history of American commerce. It was in September, 1891, that the failure of the European and Asiatic wheat crops started the huge export movement of American grain to Europe. Our export record of that year has long been proverbial in the records of United States commerce. Yet, though our total export trade of September, 1891, reached the large figure of $82,954,085, the exports of last month rise materially above it, reaching the quite unprecedented total of $85,098,594. To appreciate the bearing of such a movement on the present situation, comparison with more recent years is necessary. This September export trade of 1896 rises $26,558,531 above that of September, 1895, and $26,059.731 above 1894. When the almost equally remarkable shrinkage in merchandise import trade last month, as compared with previous years, is taken into reckoning, the contrast becomes even more impressive. Our exports last month exceeded imports by $34,272,889, whereas in the same month of 1895 there was an actual excess of imports reaching $6,765,257. There is little cause for astonishment in the favorable movement of the foreign exchanges when such a radical alteration in our trade situation has occurred.

It is sufficiently well known that a large part of this enormous export trade has been caused, in 1896, as in 1891, by a shortage of certain European grain crops, against a very generous harvest in this country. But it would be a great mistake to ascribe entirely to the grain movement the present heavy export trade. The record of September's grain exports, by quantity and by volume, is issued by the Bureau simultaneously with its general trade report, and throws great light on the details of the movement. Comparison of these figures with those of the corresponding month in 1891 shows very plainly that other commodities have combined with breadstuffs in raising this year's export average to its heavy total. It is true, the breadstuffs export movement of September shows an increase of fully 51 per cent. over last year; but as yet it makes no such comparison with 1891. Although our total exports of all kinds exceed the record of that year, the breadstuffs trade of 1896 falls materially lower. Last month, for instance, the country's total wheat exports were 9,649,253 bushels; in September, 1891, they were 19,496,165. The corn exports, to be sure, were this year nearly double those of 1891, and flour exports are slightly larger; but rye falls very far below the record of five years ago. In brief, the value of all breadstuffs exports in September, 1896, was $17,054,222; in September, 1891, it was $31,462,021. But in 1891 the breadstuffs exports made up nearly 38 per cent. of the total September exports; this year their percentage of the total is barely 20. From this the necessary conclusion is, that our export trade this season, in all branches of general products and of manufactures, has not only vastly exceeded that of a year ago, but has passed far beyond the record of 1891. In other words, the country's manufacturing export trade, after two years of the Wilson tariff act, has reached a volume quite without precedent in our history.

We have received from a puzzled correspondent a copy of a campaign document of the Bryan kind entitled "Sound Labor Questions," some particular parts of which we are desired to answer. The first part which calls for attention is this:

> "Can one business man who gets 68½ cents for wheat, for instance, compete with a business man getting $1.37 for the same quality and quantity of wheat? Of course not, you say; but 68½ cents in money is what the American farmer gets when his competitor, the Hindu farmer, gets $1.37 in money for *identically the same quantity of wheat.*"

This brilliant argument was scarcely dry from the press when the American farmer who could not possibly compete with the Hindu farmer in raising wheat, began to export wheat from San Francisco to India in large quantities, showing that he could easily compete, not only in the Liverpool market, but in the Bombay market also. This, it may be urged, is an exceptional condition, due to a short crop in India, but does it not suggest that the price at any particular time is due to the law of supply and demand, and not to the kind of money in use?

The writer of "Sound Labor Questions" goes on to say that

> "if an ounce of silver can be bought in London for 68½ cents, that is all they will pay for an ounce of coined money—silver rupees; but the money value, in India, of an ounce of rupees is $1.37, or double the price of silver metal uncoined. As you can buy nearly double the number of rupees to-day with gold that you could twenty years ago, so you can buy in India two bushels of wheat or double the quantity of cotton that you could twenty years ago with the same amount of gold, because the market value of the silver in the rupee has nothing to do with its money value in India."

This is puzzling because nobody can understand it. It implies that anybody can buy silver in the London market at 68½ cents per ounce and have that silver converted into rupees, which he can use in wheat-buying at the rate of $1.37 per ounce. This is not true. The mints of India were closed to the coinage of rupees more than three years ago. Nobody can buy silver in London for conversion into rupees at any rate whatever. Therefore the whole argument falls to the ground. But the argument was unsound even before the Indian mints were closed. The commission who examined the question reported that the export trade of India was more active and prosperous when the rupee was steady in value than when it was declining. They reported also that any advantage gained by the exporter of wheat in India by the fall in the value of silver was at the expense of labor, and that the depreciation of the currency had been a great hardship to the wage-earning class. So it would be here.

It is evident from Bryan's speech to the women, as well as from several other speeches, that he has in his mind two silver dollars, one of high purchasing power and hard to get hold of. This is for the use of the people who have something to sell. The other is to be of low purchasing power, and easy to get, for the use of people who have debts to pay It is, of course, very hard to recommend both these dollars to the same people, but he seems to act on the same principle as the man who aimed his gun so as to miss if it was a cow and kill if it was a deer. The new Bryanite dollar is to have the quality of becoming very valuable and high-priced in the hands of a man who has wheat to sell, but in the hands of a debtor it is to become quite cheap and plentiful. We can hardly think of a better arrangement than this. The only fault we find with it is that it does not go far enough. We think that there ought to be dollars for each class in the community, just like clothing and food—a dollar for men, a dollar for women, a dollar for the workingman, and a dollar for the idle rich man. There will never be true happiness till every man has his and every woman has her own dollar, suited to his or her circumstances in life. There would then be no complaints. And we would have it an American dollar, of good American silver and coined in the best manner. Only, of course, all dollars would not have the same value. Why should the poor washerwoman have the same dollar as the Fifth Avenue lady, any more than the same gown or boots? Bryan has not yet hit on the real thing, but he is marching in the right direction, and he will "get there." This compulsion of the poor to use the same dollar as the rich is the worst feature of the régime which is shaking under his blows. A

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dollar suited to each man's individual needs is what the times call for.

Chairman Jones of the Popocratic national committee has aroused the country with another call to arms against perils which it does not suspect. He says that the "great corporations, with scarcely an exception, and many of the large employees of labor are engaged in a concerted effort to coerce their employees into voting at the approaching election against their own convictions," and declares his solemn belief that if the conspiracy prospers, "government by corporations will have succeeded government by the people." Jones says he shall do all he can to prevent it by having "every scoundrel, whether public officer or private citizen, who is detected in any violation of the law, vigorously prosecuted and sent to the penitentiary if possible." There will be no trouble about doing this. The election, in all except a few Southern States, will be held under the Australian ballot system. No voter can be coerced unless the coercer forces his way into the booth with him and bulldozes him there in the marking of his ballot. Jones can catch any "conspirator" who tries to do this and can land him in the penitentiary without difficulty. He need not make public disturbance now about this, for the public is with him everywhere. Nobody has ever tried to violate the booth law since its adoption, except some of Jones's Tammany Hall friends in this city a few years ago, and it should calm Jones to reflect upon the fact that they *were* all sent to the penitentiary without the aid of a "call to the people."

Election bets are not safe criteria of the state of public opinion, but if they could be considered in this light, the bets made every day in Wall Street would settle the matter against Mr. Bryan decisively. Here, for example, is a firm of substantial resources offering to sell "calls" for gold, good until November 6, at 1⅛ premium, or until December 15 at 1¾ premium. All calls sold will be guaranteed by the American Surety Company. It is not necessary that the buyer of these calls should deposit anything except the 1⅛ per cent. If he wants to insure himself to the extent of $10,000, he can put up $112.50, and then the firm will give him $10,000 in gold after the election in exchange for $10,000 in United States currency. The latter may be all silver certificates if he chooses, or it may be a certified bank check. There is no limit to the amount of business that can be transacted on this basis. Sums smaller than $10,000 are not offered, because the amount of the premium is not large enough to warrant the expense of getting the contracts guaranteed by the surety company for sums less than that amount. For any larger sum the door is open during business hours. Now if Mr. Bryan were to be elected, the premium on gold immediately after that event would be much greater than 1⅛ per cent. It would be much greater on the 15th of December than 1¾ per cent. Therefore these offers to sell gold for future delivery, while purely business transactions, are virtually bets that Mr. Bryan will not be elected. Of course the firm which makes these bets takes no risk. All that it needs to do is to buy sterling exchange at the same time that it sells the call. It can buy sixty-day bills at a rate which will save the interest meanwhile. This means that the whole commercial world takes the same view of Bryan's chances of election that this particular firm does.

The exceptionally large registration throughout this State, especially in all the cities, affords the usual amount of satisfaction to the "arithmetic men" of both parties, but the claims of encouragement which the Bryanites put forth come chiefly from the mouth of Johnny Sheehan and have a very empty sound. Nobody knows better than Sheehan that there is no encouragement for him in the registration figures, or in any other aspect of the campaign in this city and State. For the first time in the city's history, money is wagered on the size of the Republican majority here. It is generally believed that McKinley will carry the city—an assumption that is not at all unreasonable in view of the fact that there was a majority cast against Hill for Governor here in the election of 1894. Hill's vote was 127,000, and the combined vote of Morton and Wheeler was 133,000, or 6,000 greater. Nobody expects that Bryan will poll as many votes as Hill did, for Tammany was united and enthusiastic for Hill, while it is completely demoralized over Bryan. The registration in this city is in some respects a disappointment, but there is no doubt that the chief reason why a larger increase was not made is to be found in Democratic dissatisfaction. Believing that the State is certain to go for McKinley by an overwhelming majority, many Democrats decided not to register. Whatever gains there are here and in other cities may be set down safely, therefore, as in favor of the Republicans.

The decision of the Court of Appeals in favor of allowing the ticket of the National Democrats to be printed upon the ballots in this State is a verdict of great value. Being unanimous, it cannot be disputed as sound law, and as sound common sense it is above question. The first object of the secret-ballot system, with all ballots printed and distributed at the public expense, is to give all candidates a just and equal standing before the voters at the polls. The object of the efforts that the Popocratic managers in this and other States have been making to keep Palmer and Buckner electors off the ballots, has been to prevent the people from having this free chance to express their will. They were afraid that if the National Democratic ticket was before them, many voters might prefer that to the Bryan ticket. There was no other purpose in their opposition. They have been defeated in nearly every case, we believe, and the judicial verdict in this State is so emphatic that it will stand as a precedent and will discourage the repetition of such efforts in the future.

Gov. Altgeld's speech at Cooper Union on Saturday was principally a defence of what is called the "free-riot clause" of the Chicago platform. His allusions to the silver question were few, and of a kind to show that he understands free coinage to be something very obnoxious to rich people, and therefore presumably right. He attacked President Cleveland for not waiting till he (Altgeld) was ready to suppress the Debs riots—if there really were any such riots, of which there is grave doubt in his mind. He says that he had suppressed some coal riots in Illinois before, and he thinks that that fact ought to have convinced the President that he intended to suppress the Debs disturbances, admitting, for the sake of argument, that there were any. If there were any riots in Chicago, Altgeld holds that they were not of a kind to warrant interference by the President. The mails had not been stopped, interstate commerce had not been blocked, nothing had occurred which could be called a breach of federal law. In laying down these premises, Gov. Altgeld differs from the judges who passed upon these questions afterwards, including the judges of the Supreme Court. But his speech was so largely directed against judges that this point of disagreement is trifling in comparison with others.

Mr. Lucius B. Swift of Indianapolis has for eight years edited in that city the *Civil-Service Chronicle*, a monthly journal devoted to the cause of civil-service reform. He announces that with the defeat of Bryan, which he confidently expects, he shall suspend its issue. The Indianapolis *News* makes this announcement the text for a well-deserved tribute to Mr. Swift. The conduct of the *Chronicle* has been an admirable illustration of the effective work in the interest of good government which can be done by a public-spirited citizen. For eight years Mr. Swift has made this little journal a scourge for the spoilsman wherever he found him, attacking Republican and Democratic offenders with equal vigor. There was no State in the Union where the doctrine of reform in the civil service more needed to be preached than Indiana when he began his work, and no place in the nation that offered a better field for such a

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publication than a city in the heart of the interior region of the country, which was slower than the Atlantic seaboard to recognize the significance of the movement. At first ridiculed and then abused, Mr. Swift has at last come to see the importance of his work recognized even by the spoilsmen, and its value to the community confessed by all friends of good government.

An appeal reaches us from a "Distressed *Tribune* Reader" for help against the impending "Serio-Comic Supplement of sixteen pages" with which the editor of that journal threatens him in future. He calls attention to the fact that if the *Tribune* adopts it, there will be no Sunday paper left in the city which a respectable, intelligent man can see come into his house without groans of anguish, and asks if something cannot be done to "bring the editors of our great dailies to their senses." He adds: "The *Tribune's* conduct strikes me like that of an eminently respectable lady who, having reached advanced age in an entirely decorous manner, suddenly dons bloomers and takes to the bicycle." We are sorry to say that we are powerless in this matter. The journalistic view which impels the *Tribune* to put on the cast-off clothing of a deceased journalistic mountebank, who died of starvation through public neglect, is something beyond our powers of comprehension. We should very much like to have Horace Greeley restored to us in full vigor for a few minutes in order to hear his opinion of it. What he would say to a "Serio-Comic Supplement of sixteen pages, some of the pages in colors, devoted to wit, humor, and satire, and containing a profusion of political cartoons, half-tone pictures, pen drawings, etc.," issued from the *Tribune* office, any of his old acquaintances can imagine. Were he to reappear, we fancy that his successor would do what the gentleman did who was overtaken by the irate father whose daughter he was eloping with—put a broad table between them "lest acts might be committed which both of them would regret for ever afterwards."

Under the treaty of Berlin, the Porte promised to provide satisfactorily for the protection of the Christians, and Great Britain was to insist on fulfilment in return for its protection of the Porte against Russia. At Edinburgh, Lord Rosebery took up this separate agreement, and said England was not bound in honor to intervene in consequence of it. He declared that he always understood that, "the Sultan not having fulfilled, or tried to fulfil, any one of his pledges under that convention, England had been equally released from hers," and "that the convention had been a dead letter ever since it was signed." So that "the peace with honor" treaty was pure humbug, and bound the Sultan to nothing, while it was used to persuade the British public that its fleets and armies had accomplished a great work for humanity. From this fact, the deadness of the treaty for eighteen years, Lord Rosebery deduces the conclusion that the present Government is no more bound to interfere than those which have preceded it since 1878, in spite of the fact that this year the evils against which the Cyprus convention was intended to guard, and which England then, to all outward appearance, pledged herself to prevent, have assumed an acute form, and have caused the death, it is estimated, of 100,000 human beings. In no year since the convention was made has this, or anything like this, happened. What it proves is, not that the treaty should now be treated as null and void, but that it was a shameful thing not to have enforced it from the beginning, because, had it been enforced, these horrors could not have taken place. Lord Rosebery's argument, if sound, means that as long as England keeps Cyprus the Sultan may do what he pleases to the Christians. This is a nice little argument, but it is hardly one for the chief of the Liberal party to make.

Lord Rosebery's account of the treaty throws an interesting light on the "concessions" Mr. Terrell has secured from the Porte, and on the treaty the Porte is going to negotiate with us. It appears that the Porte has agreed to let the wives and children of Armenians naturalized and living in America join their husbands and fathers in this country. Just think of this. See what comes of patient negotiation, and how the old man loves America and Mr. Terrell. The Porte has agreed also to negotiate a new treaty affirming and explaining the treaty of 1830, giving our consuls complete exterritorial jurisdiction over our citizens in Turkey, native as well as naturalized. As the Porte has broken this treaty constantly with regard to naturalized citizens, the importance of getting it to make another cannot be overestimated. It must be said for the Porte that it has hardly ever refused to make a promise or a treaty, and we trust Minister Terrell will get a good lot of them out of it.

At the close of Sir William Harcourt's address on the Armenian difficulty on the 5th, he took up the old question why England is not liked. That she is not liked he admitted, and said that the tone of the Continental press seemed to indicate that the Powers were much more likely to combine to menace England than to aid Armenia. Sir William frankly declared that one cause was bad manners and lack of cordiality on the part of those responsible for English diplomacy. Then he added that England, while resolute to advance her own empire in every way, had shown unreasonable jealousy of the successes of other countries. It had not been perceived that the advantage of another nation might also be the advantage of England. Hence had come the succession of panics in England over the alarming growth of some foreign power. In the sixties it was France that was going to invade England, and after 1870 no true-hearted Englishman could sleep without dreaming of the Battle of Dorking. Later on, Russia became the great national bugbear, and had remained such till the present time. All this was as absurd as it was undignified, argued Sir William, and it was high time that England, after having tried overbearing manners and international suspicion all these years, should see what a conciliatory tone and a true *entente cordiale* would do.

Statues to public men have been the theme of much artistic and moralizing discussion in the French papers of late, and a good deal of speculation has been indulged in respecting the reasons why some men are favored at the expense of others. Merit, or even popularity, does not always seem to determine why one popular subscription for a statue to a poet or philosopher should be successful and another fail. Why, for example, should a monument be erected to Mürger, while Chénier and De Vigny still go uncommemorated? It cannot be that the admirers of the former outnumber those of either of the latter, or that they are richer or more enthusiastic. M. Ed. Rod seems to have hit upon the solution of the puzzle, and to have developed, at the same time, a fruitful principle governing in such matters. It is not that Mürger is so much worshipped, but that he is a convenient club with which to whack unpleasant people over the head. His statue is not erected *to* him, but *against* others. His works are pure mediocrity, and no one knows that better than the subscribers to his monument; but he was most annoying and offensive to people whom they heartily dislike, and what could be more delicious than to carve his figure and put it in a public place in order perpetually to remind them of their enemy? The principle is obviously capable of wide expansion. You might not be willing to give a sou for the purpose of placing a bust of Montesquieu in a library, but if you were shown one of Diderot across the room, and were appealed to as against him, you might put your name down for three figures. In other words, a public statue as an expression of hate or revenge has a great future before it. Only get it into people's heads that monuments may be erected to spite somebody, and the offers to fill up Central Park with specimens of the lapidary art would fairly rain upon the Board of Aldermen: a statue to Whitman in order to exasperate his detractors; one to Platt in order to see the *Tribune* writhe; one to Dana for the sake of making Tammany yell, and so on.

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WHEAT ADVANCES, SILVER DECLINES.

THE rapid advance in the price of wheat and the persistent decline in the price of silver have arrested public attention more than any other fact in the course of the present campaign. This is very natural when we reflect that the main argument of the Popocrats at the beginning of the campaign, and indeed for several years past, has been that the gold standard has depressed the price of wheat and everything else. To prove this, they have paraded figures to show that the downward price of silver has kept pace with the downward price of wheat, that the two have run in parallel courses, and that such a phenomenon could be due only to the "grip of gold." 'Coin's Financial School' is full of this, and Mr. Bryan echoed the same argument repeatedly during the earlier months of the campaign. When wheat began to advance a few weeks ago, he said that the rise was due to the prospect of his election. There was no way to disprove this, although it was evident to all persons acquainted with the conditions of the market that the rise was due to the cessation of wheat exports from India, and the bad crop conditions in other countries which are usually our competitors in the production of that cereal.

A new element has since forced itself upon Mr. Bryan's notice, although he has not yet told how he explains it. Silver has fallen more than 4 cents per ounce, while wheat has advanced more than 22 cents per bushel. If there is any article of commerce which ought to advance on the prospect of Mr. Bryan's election, it is silver. He says that free coinage will cause it to rise to $1.29 per ounce, and that his election means free coinage; it ought, on his own theory, to show a considerable advance now, instead of which it has fallen to the lowest price known in the past two years. Mr. Bryan will probably explain that the bankers and syndicates have conspired to put up the price of wheat and to put down the price of silver for political effect, and very likely he will make many of his followers believe it—especially those who believe that bankers and syndicates are in the habit of cornering gold in order to oppress the debtor class.

The causes of the present advance in wheat and decline of silver are to be found, as heretofore, in the law of supply and demand. Not only has India ceased to export wheat, in consequence of the drought, but she has begun to import it from Australia and even from California, according to recent reports. The Russian supply is also short. Foreign purchases in our market to make good these deficiencies have put up the price. There is nothing simpler, nothing more easily understood. On the other hand, the demand for silver in China and Japan has fallen off. The following explanation of the decline in demand is given by the *London and China Express* of September 25:

"The speculation which had held silver above the parity of rates of exchange in the East has died out, while only disturbing elements remain. We refer to the uncertainty attending matters in the United States, to which have to be added the almost total absence of shipments of silk from Japan, and the very small purchases of this commodity made in China. The position in the Far East, which, being the ultimate consumer of most of the white metal produced, has a considerable say in fixing its value, is that bills are all going one way, and that, consequently, little support is accorded. Shipments of Straits produce also continue on a small scale, and therefore lend no assistance."

In other words, the price of silver has been governed by the law of supply and demand, just like the price of wheat. If India is unable to export wheat, she is less able to buy silver. If the Straits Settlements are not exporting so much of their produce as formerly, they are under the same disability. If China and Japan for any reason are not sending as much silk abroad as usual, they too are disabled from buying silver in the customary amounts. The two phenomena, which have come to pass just at a time when they were most needed to confound the silverites, are explainable in the simplest possible way, and they show conclusively that the other movements in the price of wheat and silver, which played so great a part in 'Coin's Financial School,' were due to like causes, and that the "grip of gold" had nothing to do with them one way or the other.

There is now every prospect that Mr. Bryan will be beaten overwhelmingly. If the business world did not think so, both East and West, not only would silver advance, but gold would be going out of the country, instead of coming in, and business would be growing worse instead of better in every quarter of the Union. When he is beaten, and all elements of uncertainty as to the standard of value are eliminated, there is every reason to expect a season of prosperity akin to that which followed the resumption of specie payments in 1879. Every tradesman knows that his customers are holding back their orders for goods till after the election. They are buying the very smallest quantities that they can get on with. If a man thinks of furnishing or refurnishing his house, or buying anything beyond what he must eat and wear from day to day, he puts it off till after the election. He wants to know what he can expect after that momentous event, and although he may feel very sure that the Popocrats will be defeated, he wants to have absolute certainty before he risks his money in anything. This state of mind is reflected in the hoarding of gold which is going on in all parts of the country. These hoardings are in small amounts to each individual hoarder, but are large in the aggregate and have caused a small premium for the yellow metal over paper currency. When the silver craze is smashed, these hoards will be unlocked, and the long-withheld orders for merchandise of every kind will come forward, and we shall have once more a period of active trade, confident enterprise, and large demand for labor—conditions that can never come so long as a doubt remains whether the dollar is to be worth one hundred cents or only fifty.

THE OFFICES, AND INTEREST IN POLITICS.

ONE of the extraordinary features of this extraordinary campaign has been strangely overlooked by some of our ablest thinkers and publicists. We refer to the fact that the offices to be striven for were never so few, while political interest was almost never so great. This surprising state of affairs certainly calls for explanation. Our gravest and most experienced instructors in the principles of public life, under a democracy, have assured us for years that what we are now seeing we never should see. As the offices were made competitive, interest in politics would gradually decline, until, if the civil-service reformers had their way and got all the offices under the rules, no one would go to the polls except a few dyspeptic professors and valetudinarians. To the men who have been solemnly telling us this all the while, the spectacle the campaign now affords must excite special wonder.

As to the facts there can be no question. President Cleveland's order of last May, together with the subsequent regulations made, removed practically the whole federal civil service from its time-honored place in the quadrennial pig-trough. Something like 90,000 "places" are now under the rules, their occupants protected from intimidation, assessment, or partisan displacement. And, what is more, McKinley approves of this work and promises to sustain and continue it. He is thoroughly pledged to "extend the civil-service laws wherever practicable," to "take no backward step," and to "improve, but never degrade, the public service." Now, according to the leading authorities on American politics, this should have been fatal to the McKinley canvass. No offices, no interest; no "places," no organization, no votes. Especially might this have been expected to be the result in view of Bryan's attitude. In this respect he is up to the level of old-fashioned American patriotism. No "life tenure" for him. No "aristocracy of office-holders" under his administration. As it was the President's order that removed the offices from the scramblers, another Presidential order can restore them, and such an order Bryan tacitly promises to issue. His opponent has no offices to hold out as bait; *he* holds them all out. On the theory in which we have been carefully educated, this should have meant at once a dispirited and flagging campaign for McKinley, an enthusiastic and cumulative rising of the masses of free-

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men for Bryan. But the plaguey thing has not worked that way, and we think our old political philosophers are bound to tell us why.

We shall not let them off with the excuse that the issue this year is one of absorbing interest and transcendent importance. It is precisely that kind of an issue which required and justified the spoils system. Confound it, with your country in peril, were you going to haggle about giving the bosses a few offices? Didn't you see that, while your theories might be all very well, you really could not, you know, in practical politics overlook the actual forces that decided elections, and you should say now, as an honest man and a patriot, whether you would prefer to have the rebel debt assumed, with slavery very likely reëstablished, all the mills closed, and business ruined, instead of waiting a few years until the public mind was ripe for your civil-service views? Of course, we should not get angels in *all* the offices—no reasonable man would expect that—but just consider the tremendous importance of carrying this election, and do be practical for this once.

Everybody knows, in fact, with what enthusiasm the spoils politicians would have welcomed the critical issues of this campaign as just the strongest arguments against reform. "*This* year of all untimely years," they would have said. "Think of the millions of wage-earners in terror at the threat to cut their pay in two, and then tell us if you have the heart to take the offices away from us and so break down the gold standard. Oh, those widows and orphans, whose little all is endangered while you cold theorists are calmly discussing utopian plans, without seeing that this is the time for urgent action by strong men, using every available means, ready to pledge every office five times over in order to avert the distress of innocent and helpless women and children."

All such humbug has been given the lie in this campaign in a way that ought to serve for all time. We have seen unequalled enthusiasm for the candidate who promises no offices, while his opponent, who does not conceal his aim to loot the public service to reward his followers, has thereby made his canvass but so much the more hopeless. The keenest and most general political interest that we have witnessed for a generation has been, in short, aroused without a particle of what was so long alleged to be the necessary stimulus. Some of the most enthusiastic workers in the campaign—the gold Democrats—have, by their action, positively cut themselves off from every hope of getting office. The spoilsmen were all along the real theorists. Moreover, as is now clear, they were wretched slanderers of the American people in asserting that there could be no interest in politics without the motive of personal profit and greed; and one of the great achievements of this campaign will be the final disposing of that slander for the brainless and degrading thing it is.

INTERNATIONAL MISUNDERSTANDING.

THE difficulty nations have in understanding each other was never better illustrated than by the explanations and predictions in regard to the present crisis in America which reach us from the other side of the water. In the first place, there are currents of thought and feeling in every country which escape the observation of a stranger, and can become known to him only by long residence and by daily contact with a large number of natives. He finds out in this way, little by little, by an infinite variety of small incidents, why certain things which cannot and will not be in any given country, seem quite possible and likely to a foreigner reasoning on the matter à priori. A Frenchman's account of an English girl, or of the relations of the sexes in England or America, is an example of this. It may be logically deducible from a considerable number of undeniable facts, and yet the Englishman or American knows it to be absurd. In the same way it would have been (and has been, we may say) impossible during the last twenty years to explain to an American silver man or bimetallist why there was no likelihood that England would adopt the double standard. He would go to England, see a certain number of ardent bimetallists (bimetallism is a kind of religion), one or two of them ex-Governors of the Bank of England, hear that Mr. Balfour, the great English statesman, was a bimetallist, and come back with the conclusion that the old pound sterling was doomed. But the average English business man would feel in his bones that it was all nonsense, and that the pound sterling was as safe as the pyramids. He would tell you that it was to her dislike of such "fads" that England's commercial greatness was due, that Mr. Balfour was not a financial authority, and that his opinions on finance made no impression on that portion of the English public which knows and feels, through daily use and wont, the importance and value of the gold standard.

In the second place, foreigners naturally find it impossible to estimate the weight and importance of men who profess to speak for their own country abroad, explain its motives, and record the drift of its popular opinion. It is not unnatural that a man's official position, such as Mr. Balfour's, or Senator Lodge's, or Senator Morgan's, should seem to arm him with authority on all subjects whatever; and yet only a native could tell accurately on what subjects he was to be listened to, and on what laughed at, and how much importance should really be attached to his official position. This difficulty is increased in England with regard to America by the English practice, due mainly to the absence of well-defined social classes in this country, of lumping all Americans together as essentially the same thing. This is carried so far that often there are assumptions in England that any American would be glad over there to meet any other American; that any editor would fly to the arms of James Gordon Bennett, Joseph Pulitzer, or Mrs. Frank Leslie; that Mr. J. C. Carter would be delighted to come across Howe & Hummell in London, or President Eliot to hobnob with Edward Lauterbach. Why not, they would say; is he not an American? Consequently, anybody who can put "U. S. A." to his name, finds ready access to a prominent place in the London papers, whether he comes from Montana or New York, and whether he has kept a gambling-house or preached the Gospel; and is listened to with equal deference. Not the slightest trouble is taken to gauge him, or weigh him, or ascertain by what right he speaks for one of the largest and most heterogeneous countries in the world.

It is to this curious state of mind that we owe the attention given to Mr. Thomas G. Shearman recently in the London *Times*. He wrote one or two long letters explaining the Bryan trouble and the condition of the West. As facts, they were a mass of blunders and exaggerations, as was shown conclusively a day or two later by Mr. Parker, our consul at Birmingham. As opinions, we shall only say that, produced at Mr. Shearman's habitat, Brooklyn, they would not have attracted the smallest attention, and we can say all this without denying that Mr. Shearman is a man of ability. Nevertheless, the *Times* had two editorials on the letters as a revelation. The *Spectator* had another, and thanked him for letting light in on the Bryan question. This same method of weighing authorities has led some of the London journals to discredit the Eastern papers, as not knowing what they were talking about when they predicted Bryan's defeat, in that they were under the influence of the "money power" and paid attention only to what was passing in their immediate vicinity, for had not William C. Pink of Arkansas, U. S. A., or Moses J. Cheever of Oklahoma Territory, U. S. A., explained fully why Bryan would carry every State in the Union except New York, Pennsylvania, and Massachusetts?

We do not know that there is any remedy for this state of things but inquiry. In these days, when every man who wishes can find an organ, if the mere wish to write on any subject is taken as competence to write, confusion must always reign. There could hardly be a more potent cause of blunders about America than the habit of taking for granted that any American who, happening to be in London, chooses to lift up his voice for the "U. S. A.," is to be

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listened to with attention and respect. Before keeping silence in the presence of a fluent talker or writer about American affairs, it would be always well to ask, What attention is paid to him at home? Do people listen to him there with respect? Whom does he persuade? What proof has he given of honesty and perspicacity? Have his predictions ever come true? What was he doing in Arkansas or Oklahoma before he took up the business of enlightening Englishmen about affairs in his native land?

THE ISOLATION OF AMERICAN HISTORY.

THE past ten or fifteen years have seen a remarkable awakening of interest in the academic study of American history. Formerly the subject was one to which colleges paid not much attention; a single brief course, usually neither thorough nor interesting, being all that most institutions offered. But with the development of universities and the increase of facilities for advanced work, courses of instruction in American history have come to occupy a place of especial prominence in the historical curriculum, while significant fruit of the new enthusiasm appears in a long list of monographs, annotated reprints of historical documents, and "topical outlines" for the use of students, all testifying to earnestness and industry, and often fairly bristling with an array of "critical apparatus." No field of historical inquiry in the United States now calls out such widespread interest or enlists so many workers as does American history, and in scarce any department has zeal for publication run such lengths.

Something of this quite exceptional popularity is doubtless attributable to patriotic impulse, and the natural attractiveness of an accessible and not much wrought vein. Something, also, is certainly due to the fact that American history, in comparison with many other departments of historical investigation, seems to offer an "easy" field. A considerable amount of valuable work can be done in it by a student unacquainted with any foreign language, ancient or modern, and quite ignorant of the science of diplomatics; and a university man who fancied that he could have the form of historical learning without the substance might think that here was his opportunity. It can hardly be said that the universities, notwithstanding all their efforts, have been quite successful in combating this idea. Few of them as yet require any very extended special preparation on the part of intending students of the subject; an elementary course or two, or even a small amount of "general reading," being usually enough to satisfy all demands. An examination of catalogues and other official publications is pretty certain to leave the impression that American history is still too often looked upon as in some way a distinct and separable branch of historical study, capable of a large measure of isolation, and for whose profitable pursuit any tolerably well-informed young person who has passed the sophomore year is, presumably, fitted. More than one institution calling itself a university, and justifying its name by the high character of its work in some other lines, will this year admit to "original research" in an American history "seminary" some students, both graduates and undergraduates, who would have difficulty in framing a creditable account of the main events in any Presidential administration, and whose knowledge of the "sources" is hardly sufficient to enable them to trace a bill through the pages of the *Congressional Record*, or interpret a reference to the Statutes at Large.

This tendency to isolation is undoubtedly a serious danger to the future of historical work in the United States. While the comparative method of modern science has been appropriated by nearly all departments of learning, its application to the treatment of our national development has thus far been infrequent. No one, for example, doubts that the student of Germanic philology must know Greek and Latin, and the student of medicine learn something of chemistry and physics, but it is still possible, in some quarters, for the student of American history possessing a very meagre knowledge of the history of any country except his own to be lifted into the company of scholars. It is this, doubtless, that makes some college presidents hesitate to call to permanent professorships young men whose advanced degrees have been obtained by a course of study in American history alone; not that the importance and the educational value of the subject are in any way undervalued, or that there is any lack of eminent scholars filling chairs of American history in this country, but because the training, where the subject is isolated, is very likely to be insufficient and unsatisfactory.

The logical consequences of this inadequate preparation are manifest also in the innumerable publications which illustrate its methods and embody some of its results. Here and there, in the apparently endless series of "studies" and "contributions" which one university after another now feels called upon to issue, one comes upon work of real distinction, creditable alike to its authors and to American scholarship; work, for instance, like Miss Follett's recent study of the Speakership, a notable example of learning and industry wisely directed. Of such work there can never be too much. The trouble is that anything comparable to it in excellence is as yet the exception rather than the rule. One is impressed, in examining many of these serial contributions to American history, by their rather indiscriminate character. There is no end of industry and learning, only the industry is a bit desultory and the learning ill-digested. To accumulate a great mass of information, from all sorts of sources, upon some topic which has not yet happened to be sufficiently "investigated," to help out the text with liberal quotations and weight it heavily with foot-notes, to append a so-called "bibliography" and extracts from more or less relevant "documents," and then to get the whole published as part of a "series," may serve to advertise the author and help him to a "call," but it rarely produces a work that illustrates either the method of science or the spirit of sound learning. The intentions of the writers may be excellent enough, and the fruit of their labors often contains much of interest and importance, but its value is distinctly out of proportion to its bulk.

What is needed is a more rational adjustment of the relations between American history and other departments of learning than most of our universities have yet secured. We have no lack of earnest laborers and patient investigators, but there is often occasion for regret that they could not have been better equipped before setting about their ambitious tasks. What the details of that equipment shall be is too broad a question for discussion here; plainly, however, they ought to include a wider study of history, government, and law than is now usually insisted upon. As to the prevailing eagerness for publication, there is a certain manifest reasonableness in asking that a person, whatever his field, shall have something to say before rushing into print, and that he shall give us results rather than processes and "notes." For success in the writing of history does not depend upon the possession of vast learning or a picturesque style, but upon easy mastery of facts, sound judgment, sure sense of proportion, and power of simple and accurate statement. Of these qualities the writing of American history is still much in need.

A PICTURE OF NEWFOUNDLAND.

ST. JOHN'S, September, 1896.

A JOURNEY from New York to Newfoundland in summer is delightful, not only because it transports one to a cooler climate, but as bringing one into contact with modes of life and novel surroundings which are unique on this hemisphere. The island still justifies the name given it four centuries ago, for every traveller has to rediscover it for himself. He can obtain only the haziest information about any spot beyond that on which he stands. A number of steamers sail to St. John's from American, Canadian, and English ports, but, when they have any schedule, departure from it is the rule, not the exception. There is probably not a steamboat agent in a foreign port who can give any information as to the route of the railroads built or building, or supply a time-table. Nor are they to blame. Although there exist three systems of railroads, almost encircling the island, no time-table is published in a railway guide, in a public newspaper, or on a separate sheet. The traveller must therefore constitute himself an explorer, and investigate Newfoundland for himself.

It has been for four centuries a stage for drying codfish, and little else. The fisherman is loath to become a farmer; yet he loves his little garden, and therefore, wherever enough square feet of soil has accumulated in the hollows of the rocky coast, there he, in the intervals of fishing, and the women, who remain at home to wash and cure the fish, grow a few of the dear old-fashioned flowers—phloxes, pinks, and sweet-williams—on narrow beds planted on each side of one central walk, and flank them with hardy vegetables, which thrive in that moderate moist climate. The decennial census, which fills two thick octavo volumes, and which pries minutely into the doings of the 197,000 souls and bodies with which it is concerned, tells us that, though there are only 1,545 farmers on the island, there are 36,301 fishermen and others who cultivate the land, or nearly every head of a family of five.

These same census volumes explain many other anomalies of life in this strange isl and. The next column of the recapitulation to that which expresses so vividly the love of these weather-beaten fishermen for their tiny garden plot, tells us that 608 members of the farming community are supported exclusively by the Government. In other words, 39 per cent. as many depend on state salaries as derive a living from tilling the soil. There must be, under any system of government, a staff of officials to govern a community, be it large or small; but the number is out of all proportion large when the population is so small and scattered. Newfoundland gathers her revenues in chief part from customs du-

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ties, and must defend her shores from smugglers. This is the more difficult as the French islands of St. Pierre and Miquelon are almost within a stone's throw of the south coast of the larger island, and are suspected of thriving on their contraband trade. It is at least suspicious that this group of small French islands, with some 6,000 inhabitants, imports not less than ten million francs of merchandise annually. The capacity of consumption of their population is certainly surprisingly great.

The Post-Office Department of Newfoundland also employs an extraordinary number, for the largest accumulation of population in one locality is by all odds in St. John's, with its 29,000 souls, while the next largest town is Harbor Grace, which can muster only 6,400 inhabitants. The total population of this large island of 40,000 square miles would not fill a second-rate city, and yet it is scattered around a rocky shore so deeply indented by great bays, which again are fringed by so many long promontories, concealing deep coves, that its coast line probably exceeds 5,000 miles in actual length. To supply such an attenuated population with regular mails, and with the judicial machinery for settling their quarrels, involves unavoidably a great waste of force and money. But departments seem to be unduly multiplied. The Government owns and operates the domestic telegraph lines, not, however, through the post-office, but under a separate head.

The most glaring and, to the ordinary secular observer, the most unwarrantable dissipation of energy is in the denominational school system. It seems good to this little body of independent thinkers that religion be taught in their schools, and by religion they mean that peculiar system of theology which each prefers. The population is distributed theologically as follows :

Church of England (Episcopalian)	68,075
Church of England (Reformed)	467
Church of Rome	72,342
Methodist	52,672
Presbyterian	1,447
Congregational	782
Salvation Army	2,352
Baptists and others	37

These stanch sectarians are satisfied by the ministration of only 180 pastors, but, recognizing the importance of instilling pure theology into the infant mind, they pay, in great measure out of the public chest, 601 school-teachers. Looking down the list, we find, for instance, that Cat Harbor, with 30 inhabited houses, has 2 schools ; Twillingate, with 587 inhabited houses, has no less than 8 schools, Little Burin, with only 60 inhabited houses, has 3 schools, and other as striking examples might be added to the list. Yet, despite this multiplication of schools, it would seem that 29,400 children under 15 years of age attend them against 37,559 absentees, though there are so few isolated inhabitants on the island that only 8,356 children live at more than one and a half miles from the nearest schoolhouses. If anywhere in the world, here sectarian education is reduced to an absurdity. In some of the smaller hamlets, the Presbyterians and Methodists combine their state contributions, and are able to pay a common teacher somewhat more than a starvation salary. But the Episcopalians and Romanists stand invariably and rigidly aloof from others and from one another. Three of the more numerous denominations even maintain separate institutions for the communication of higher learning and the inculcation of true doctrine.

But the school system is not the only anomaly in this charmingly anomalous island. It is hoped that the interior will be settled, if access to it be given by railroads. As it is, there are no long continuous thoroughfares or highways beyond a radius of sixty miles from St. John's. You may take the railroad car at the head of St. George's Bay on the west coast (now the end of the track, which will next summer be at Port au Basque, its terminus) and travel northwestward until you get a glimpse of the Gulf of St. Lawrence through the beautiful Bay of Islands; then across the island by the picturesque valleys of the Humber and Exploits, and over the weird wilderness of swamp and scrub known as the Great Barrens to the head of Morris Inlet, one of the arms of Notre Dame Bay; then southward through a scanty spruce forest, looking occasionally out on to the Atlantic between the rocky capes which, like magnificent buttresses, support the island, and prevent it from being engulfed by the angry Atlantic, until you reach St. John's. The railroad journey covers more than 500 miles, yet until you are within a few miles of the capital you do not see a graded or macadamized road. The surprise and wonder with which you at length greet one of the excellent highways which radiate from St. John's, if you have been some little time in the interior, must be akin to what a countryman feels when he comes unexpectedly and for the first time upon the iron tracks. This absence of roads had to be supplied, if the island was ever to be peopled. And as nowadays it is as cheap to build a poor railroad as a good highway, it was with reason that Sir William Whiteway, in 1878, proposed that the Legislature should subsidize a cross-country railroad in furtherance of a scheme conceived by Sandford Fleming of a combined rail and steamboat short route to Europe. Whatever force there may have been in the arguments of the promoters of this route, which would have involved at least five transfers before Liverpool could be reached, across Cape Breton, Newfoundland, and Ireland, from the American mainland, has been so weakened by the increased speed attained by the "ocean greyhounds" that now hardly any one can be found to reiterate them. However that may be, this impracticable proposal gave the first excuse for the successful impetus to railroad-building on the island. Since then it has progressed with varying rapidity under two different systems.

First, a contract was given to an American syndicate for the building of a medium-gauge road of three feet six inches (another anomaly), the consideration being an annual subsidy of $180,000 for thirty-eight years, and 5,000 acres of land per mile. The company failed after building so much of the road as entitled it to a subsidy of $45,000 a year. A receiver now runs this—the "Newfoundland Railroad." That plan failing, the Government tried its own hand at building, and constructed twenty-seven miles of road through the Peninsula of Avalon to the old French capital of Placentia. (The euphonious name, it may be remarked in passing, of this, the southeastern pendant of the island, is the only survival of the fantastic nomenclature adopted by Lord Baltimore.) But, after building twenty-seven miles, the Government reverted to the contract system, and advertised for tenders to build a road to almost encircle the island. The contract fell to Mr. R. G. Reid, who has nearly completed it, and has received the stipulated price of $15,600 per mile built. But the building of the road was a less serious embarrassment to the Government than the prospect of having to operate it when built. To relieve itself of this, the Government agreed with Mr. Reid that he should run two trains a week over the Placentia branch and his own road for ten years, for a consideration of 2,500,000 acres of land. The term of the contract has not yet half expired, but so appalling is the prospect of having to take over the railroad, even at that distant date, that it is rumored that the Government already contemplates a renewal of the contract—a suggestive warning to those who advocate state control of railroads without having to face the responsibilities of their management.

Such hesitation on the part of the Administration is not groundless, for Newfoundland railroads, to a degree without parallel even in our own progressive country, where so many a road has been built in advance of its traffic, are developers, which it is hoped and believed will successfully evoke from the blank surface of the island the latent image of prosperity. The interior is uninhabited, though enough good land to support a fairly large population has been rendered accessible by the road, which has already led to the opening of magnificent granite quarries. Moreover, it cuts through an extensive coal field, and passes over the same rocks in which valuable copper and iron ore deposits have been already developed, where Nature has exposed them on the face of the bare sea-cliffs. It is therefore not without good warranty that the colony is creating a three and a-half per cent. interest-bearing debt of some $10,000,000 in favor of railway construction.

Farming will never be prosperous in this northern clime unless to supply a large local mining or lumbering population. But it has been suggested that the island might be, considering its geographical position, advantageously turned into a great grazing ground for fattening cattle en route from the Northwest to Europe. It lies midway on the watery highway, and so near the shores of the consumer that lean cattle shipped on the Lakes might be landed on its shores in the spring; fattened on its nutritious, succulent grasses during the summer months; reshipped at no great increase of transportation cost, and transferred so speedily to the European market that the loss of weight would be trifling. Both Newfoundland and Cape Breton might thus perform, as the fattening pasture-ground for European shipments, the same service that Kansas and other of our prairie States do for the lean carcasses transferred to them from our Rocky Mountain cattle-rearing ranches.

These, or some such, stimuli must be given to maintain even the past industrial status of the island, in view of the waning prosperity of the fishing trade. That it is waning should excite no surprise. Four centuries of fishermen drew on the teeming shoals of cod without endeavoring to replace the drain. As long as hook and line were the instruments of capture, their natural prolificness maintained the supply, but since seines and traps have been introduced, a notable decline in the number and size of the fish has been remarked, and the fishing industry has correspondingly languished. To arrest the decay of this staple of the island's wealth, the Government has established hatcheries. Though the period within which the experiment has been under trial has been too short to determine the extent to which artificial propagation will not only supply the demand, but replace the deficiency, it is generally conceded that the number of small fish inshore has increased. Aside from artificial propagation, there are, it is true, stringent laws against the destruc-

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tion of fish below a certain size, which, if stringently enforced, would check the evil; but it is especially difficult, for political reasons, to enforce obnoxious laws in a small community under representative institutions. Politicians cannot be expected to appraise codfish at a higher value than votes. For instance, an officer of the Fisheries Department instructed a magistrate in one of the bays on the east coast to institute proceedings against all who were using seines with a smaller mesh than the law prescribed. Without difficulty or delay, evidence was secured for some forty actions, involving some one hundred voters. But the effect of so many suits, incriminating a large proportion of the voting population of the district, would have had so serious an influence on the prospects of the party in power at the next election that the magistrate, like a prudent politician, before proceeding to extremities, referred the question to headquarters, and was advised to drop all the suits. One benefit of the French concurrent rights along the French shore is, that the French cruisers take a particular pleasure in summarily interfering with any infraction of the international agreement as to fishing methods and fishing rights.

The presence of these French cruisers watching English fishermen is only another of the many anomalies which make a trip to Newfoundland so novel and delightful. Still others are that outside of St. John's you never get a fresh fish to eat, though the island subsists upon their catch, and you never see a Newfoundland dog. As a counterbalance, though we visited the west coast, the east coast, and the interior, the landscape was never once concealed by fog. J. Douglas.

WILLIAM MORRIS.

London, October 6, 1896.

It certainly seems, as Mr. Gosse wrote in the *St. James's Gazette* immediately after the death of William Morris, "as though the dying century were bent on sweeping its stage clear of all its greatest figures before it makes way for its successor." Perhaps one realizes this the more acutely now since there are few of its famous men it could so ill afford to spare as Morris. Of all the group of artists and poets with whom he must ever be identified, his is by far the most picturesque and striking personality, his the strongest influence. If Rossetti's name has come to be a symbol of picturesqueness, it is only for the elect. If Swinburne's long seclusion in this age of noisy advertisement has its element of romance, future generations will appreciate it more keenly than the present. But William Morris was a man ever before the public, known familiarly to the many as to the few; he was to be found always in the thick of the fight, commercial or political, literary or artistic. And once seen, once known, he was not easily forgotten. His personality impressed itself upon you whether, unbelieving, you listened to him preaching the poetry of socialism in the little, bare, whitewashed hall at Hammersmith, whether you watched him—a short, sturdy figure in blue—leading the socialist procession through the streets of London, or whether you sat under him, still unbelieving, in the lecture-room of the Arts and Crafts Society. You might disagree, you might disapprove; you could never remain unimpressed, unmoved. And there is as little question of the influence he exercised; if any vital Pre-Raphaelitism has survived, it is due to him rather than to the original Pre-Raphaelites themselves.

The strength of his personality exerted itself from the very beginning. He was somewhat younger than Rossetti—he was sixty-two when he died—belonging, rather, to the generation of Burne-Jones, his friend and fellow-undergraduate at Oxford. But he had not left the university before he had become one of the most gallant and active champions of the special cause advocated by the Pre-Raphaelite Brotherhood. It was he—for he first studied to be a painter—who, with Rossetti and others, decorated the Union, thus proclaiming the new gospel in the very stronghold of learning; an easy matter, however, where every new thing (in art, at least) good or bad, is accepted with equally rapturous applause. It was he who not only contributed to the *Oxford and Cambridge Magazine*, which aspired to be a second *Germ*, but financed it for a while, its chief prop and support. It is just here, I think, that one great reason of his strength and power is found. Morris was a rich man, the son of a prosperous merchant, really one of the class he despised. It was within his means to put to a practical test, to give definite form to many of the doctrines which Rossetti, Ford Madox Brown, and Burne-Jones could never have carried beyond the stage of theory. His capital, as well as their designs, was essential to the establishment of the house of Morris, Marshall, Faulkner & Co., which helped more to spread Pre-Raphaelite ideas than any work done single-handed in the studio. But for Morris, despite Faulkner, who also had some money, the chances are the firm would never have come into existence, and all the Victorian horrors of horse-hair and antimacassars and wax-flowers under glass cases might have lingered on to the very end of the century.

But do not let me be misunderstood. Money alone could have accomplished nothing; money, backed by good design, could have been productive of but little more. But Morris brought to the enterprise the still more splendid, the still more useful gifts of energy and enthusiasm and daring, tempered by honest commercial ability and sense, inherited from his merchant father. In a word, his was the talent for success, the genius for making things go, that rarely deserted him through life—never, one might say, except when the spirit of adventure and poetry led him to play the socialist.

As an artist I think it is likely that Morris will be remembered less for his own personal accomplishment than for the enormous influence which his position enabled him to extend from his immediate friends to the general public: first, through his shop, and, later, through the Arts and Crafts Society and his printing-press. He made, it is true, designs for wall-papers and carpets and embroideries. He was the fine colorist who converted Burne-Jones's weak black-and-white cartoons into gorgeous pieces of tapestry and glowing, jewel-like stained-glass windows. But the list of his designs might be longer than it is, and it would still be true that it was not so much in these that he displayed his originality (indeed, they were but so many examples of his sham mediævalism) as in the great revolution he worked in the decorative arts of England. If this meant merely that the few who could afford it adorned their houses with "Morris papers" and "Morris hangings" and "Morris chairs" (which, as a rule, were not "Morris chairs" at all), the gain would have been too small to prove worth recording; but he did much more than this. He set people thinking on the subject of decoration, he awakened them to the hideousness of the standards then accepted, he stimulated them to fresh efforts and new departures. His large and often wholesome influence reveals itself not exclusively in designs and furniture that bear the Morris stamp, but in decoration which he probably would have been the first to condemn, for no man was narrower in his artistic creed, and, though he might be responsible for an artist's escape from the yoke of the ugly, he was not therefore ready to accept that artist's idea of the beautiful. If the exhibitions of the Arts and Crafts Society hitherto have contained all to which he was willing to lend his approval, they have by no means exhausted the work that is as truly the outcome of his influence.

With the Kelmscott Press at Hammersmith it is the same as with the shop in Oxford Street. Attention has been called here too recently to the merits and faults of the books he printed for these to be criticised anew. They might be an improvement upon the old printers' work; it is not so certain that they could compete with the modern printer's accomplishment. And yet Morris, even before he had established the Kelmscott Press, from the time Reeves & Turner published his 'House of the Wolfings' (1889), roused printers and publishers and artists to a realization of the possible beauty of type and margins and spacing and title-pages, even as he had forced the public to prize beauty in furniture and all utensils in daily use.

It is too curious a fact to be ignored in any estimate or appreciation of William Morris as an artist, that, while he initiated so healthy a general reaction, his immediate influence was often unfortunately bad. Decorators who have based their style essentially upon his have been as apt to tumble into the pitfall of affected commonplace as the painters who have slavishly copied Rossetti. But it is, above all, in the decoration of books—for he was impatient of the term illustration—that his teaching and example have been most fatal. Surely, he could have no worse crime to answer for than the creation of the Birmingham School! The trouble was that he was for long one of the Examiners at South Kensington; and students, and, more important, masters paid by results, knew well that nothing had so good a chance, if any chance at all, as the drawing made with the Kelmscott book as a model. The result was that the younger generation of designers have all devoted themselves to the manufacture of the Morris border, the Morris initial, the Morris woodcut, not because their sympathies have lain in that direction, not because they have found therein the most natural method of expression, but simply because their object was to win prizes in the schools, and, afterwards, at the publisher's and bookseller's, to cater to a passing fad. A worse master, really, than Morris could not well be imagined, since in his books he was always the imitator, never the original man. And, moreover, no one could have been narrower and more prejudiced in the old standard thus revived. Good printing, good decoration, for him, ended with Albert Dürer, who was as dangerous a red rag to him as any modern illustrator. However, there is no doubt that Birmingham will pass away—it is passing now—and that the good effect of his propaganda will endure. Even as I write I hear that the Kelmscott Press will be stopped for ever: a monument, as it were, to the distinguished man who founded it. This is fortu-

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nate. His books, interesting as the intelligent, if mistaken, experiment of an artist, will survive. The foolish phase to which they gave the initiative will come to an end, as Morris, of all men, would have had it cease. He reserved his approbation for work done in accordance with his teaching, but he also withheld it when that work was too successful a tribute. Before he died, had the law allowed it, he would have sought legal redress, it is said, against some of the too flagrant imitations in Boston and Chicago.

If I have spoken, so far, wholly of Morris as an artist, it is because I believe that it is as an artist his greatest work was done. Already, in the few days since his death, his English critics have not been slow to point out that his later achievement in verse never fulfilled the promise of 'The Defence of Guenevere.' Mr. Gosse, the most lavish in his praise, has likened the 'Earthly Paradise' to Spenser's 'Faerie Queene'; the chief point of resemblance is, I fancy, that few people have read either poem to the end. William Morris was too fluent, too facile. It may be wonderful that, writing so much, he wrote so well; but the pity is that, writing so well, his fluency gave him no chance to write still better. He has often been found fault with for his Wardour-Street English, and the reproach is not unwarranted. It is a question whether even the next generation will preserve a taste for such long-winded, consciously archaic stories as 'The Roots of the Mountains' and the 'House of the Wolfings.' But here again, were there but space, it would be interesting to trace his influence for good even when wrought by that work which contributes least to his own reputation.

On the other hand, as a Socialist, I think he will be more admired in the days to come than at the present moment. Now, one sees only the weakness and evils of the cause into which he threw himself heart and soul, only the conceit and silliness and self-advertisement of too many of his "comrades." And never by argument or eloquence could he make good his claim, for he was quite the most illogical and fanatical of speakers. But posterity will remember only the romance of his crusade, will see his political career only in the poetic light through which he himself saw it always. For, perhaps, he was never more the poet, never more the artist, than when he strode through the streets at the head of his weak-kneed, timid followers, when he thundered from his platform at the Hyde Park or Trafalgar Square demonstrations, when he argued with the rabble of Tower Hill or Edgeware Road. It was of art he was ever thinking in his long campaign against capital and commercialism. Change the social conditions, and art would flourish as it had never flourished before—that was his great doctrine. And so it was always in the cause of art he labored, even on that famous Sunday when he descended with the mob upon Westminster Abbey, and all London held its breath, fearing to see renewed in its midst the worst vandalism of the Paris Commune. It is natural that men who feared the follies and worse to which his fanaticism might lead could have no sympathy with his heroism. But in the history of the nineteenth century, yet to be written, he will figure as a very Savonarola among artists.

N. N.

RENÉE DE FRANCE.—II.

PARIS, October 7, 1896.

THE name of Olympia Morata figures among those which surround the memory of the Duchess of Ferrara. She had been admitted at the Duchess's court as a friend and a teacher of her young children. Olympia was born in Ferrara in 1526; she was an infant prodigy, and wrote with elegance in Latin and in Greek at the age of fifteen. She became at the age of thirteen the companion of Anne, the eldest daughter of the Duchess. Olympia espoused with great enthusiasm the ideas of the Reformation; she was allowed, nevertheless, to be a teacher and a companion of Lucretia and Eleonora, the younger daughters of the Duchess. The list of the books which were read in common by them, and which we find in the account-books of Ferrara, would astonish and perhaps frighten many advanced ladies of our time. Olympia was obliged to leave the Court to take care of her sick father in the country. Her absence was long; when she returned, Anne, her pupil, had left Italy to be married to Francis (son of Claude de Lorraine, Duke de Guise), the future conqueror of Calais, who was assassinated by Poltrot de Méré. Olympia, for reasons which have remained unknown, fell into disgrace, and was exiled from the court. It was probably because the Duchess had a new almoner, named Bolsec, who, once a monk, had turned Calvinist, then again Catholic (he returned later to the Calvinistic faith). Olympia had married a German named Grunthler; she left with him for Schweinfurt. The town was besieged and taken by assault; she fled with her husband, and arrived at Heidelberg, where she died at the age of twenty-nine.

The struggle had fairly begun in Ferrara between the partisans and the enemies of the Reformation. The new ideas were making rapid progress at the Court. Renée was more or less openly the centre of resistance to Rome; she was in correspondence with Calvin. The Duke was in constant perplexities, between his wife and the Pope, who urged him to persecute the heretics. The Duchess herself was often uncertain; she had not yet detached herself openly from the Roman religion. "So many excellent Catholics," says with truth M. Rodocanachi, "had fulminated against the Apostolic See, from Saint Bernard to Catherine of Siena, and had with acerbity demanded reform, that it probably still seemed to her that by helping those who were trying to correct the abuses she did not become a heretic. . . . The immediate or remote consequences of the movement in which she coöperated certainly escaped her mind. And who, even among the most enlightened apostles of the Reformation, could at the beginning foresee the importance of the changes which the Reformation was going to make in the world?" The chasm which divided the Duke and the Duchess was, however, widening every day. The Duke had become the instrument of the Holy See; Renée no longer heard mass, even on Christmas day, and spoke of the Catholic religion as an idolatry. In 1554 the Duke made a decree banishing from his states all persons suspected of favoring the Reformation. Several of the servants of the Duchess had to leave, and she confined herself to her retreat at Consandolo. Hercules did not allow his two unmarried daughters to remain with her; she became a prisoner in her palace.

An inquisitor was sent to Ferrara, and the Duchess had to appear before the tribunal of the Inquisition. She was condemned, it was said at the time, to perpetual imprisonment and the confiscation of her property, and taken, in secret, to an old castle which was to be her prison. For a week, Renée refused to go to mass and to receive the sacrament; on the 13th of September a change took place. It was said, though she was still shut up, that she had recovered her reason, that she was penitent, and there was no longer any talk of a trial or a condemnation. It is certain that on the 21st of September, after having seen the Duke, her husband, she saw a confessor and took the Communion. She was set at liberty and returned to Court. The Jesuits had conducted the whole affair, and Calvin, alarmed, wrote to his friend Farel: "I receive sad news from the Duchess of Ferrara: Vanquished by threats and by the fear of opprobrium, she has fallen. Constancy is rare among the princes of the world." And Olympia Morata wrote to a friend: "I have always told you that she was a light head." The forced conversion of Renée was not sincere, as the rest of her life showed; and her husband, contenting himself with appearances, knew this better than anybody. It was not long before the Duchess renewed her relations with Calvin and his followers. Calvin himself wrote to her "to arrange matters in her household so that the mouths of all the evil talkers should be shut." The persecution of the Protestants became very severe in Italy after the accession of Paul IV. The Inquisition, well organized, had been introduced into all the cities; under the hand of Caraffa, the Church, armed by the Council of Trent with a stronger law and a more rigid organization, became very militant. If there were fewer victims of the persecution in Italy than in Spain, it was merely because the apostles of the Reformation in Italy almost all chose exile rather than martyrdom.

Duke Hercules died in October, 1558, after a short illness. Renée assumed the Regency, as her son was at the time at the Court of France; on his return she resolved to go back to her native country and to establish herself in her château of Montargis. She found herself, on revisiting France, in a very delicate situation. All her sympathies were on the Protestant side; her daughter Anne was the wife of the Duke de Guise, the head of the Catholic party. Her house at Montargis, situated on the high-road which unites the valley of the Loire with the valley of the Seine, was in a strategic position which was of great importance in the civil wars. The castle, placed on an eminence which dominates the great plain of the Gâtinais, the forest of Montargis, and the River Loire, passed for impregnable (the Revolution destroyed the old fortress, of which there are hardly any vestiges left). Renée's first care was to repair the fortifications; her subjects were ardent and very intolerant Catholics, always ready to rebel. She begged Calvin to send her a minister, which he did; but though the Duchess asked this minister, Morel, "to make short sermons, without speaking of the Pope, of the images, or even of any other abuse," he quarrelled almost immediately with the inhabitants of Montargis.

Fortunately for the Duchess, the cause of the Huguenots was apparently in the ascendant; the Court seemed won over to the new ideas. Renée was invited to go to Saint-Germain, and to wait there for the result of the theological negotiation which bears in history the name of the "Colloquy of Poissy." Unfortunately the "massacre" of Vassy forced all swords out of their scabbards. Fifteen days after this massacre, the Duke de Guise, who was the head of the Catholic party, made an almost royal entry into Paris; a civil war began all over the kingdom, and Renée retired to Montargis, where she received many

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Protestant refugees from Nemours, Blois, Tours, even Paris. D'Aubigné tells in his Memoirs how, having left Paris with his tutor (he was then a mere child), he was made prisoner by the Catholics, but, succeeding in escaping with his tutor, took refuge with the Duchess of Ferrara. "She made me sit down by her on a cushion," says he, "over three hours, to hear my infant speeches on contempt of death (I was then twelve years old), and then, having kept me for three days, she had me sent to Gien with all the company."

The castle at one time held as many as six hundred refugees. Renée's retreat was a kind of oasis in the troubled times of the wars of religion, which continued so long with short interruptions. The treaties of peace signed from time to time between the two parties were mere truces. At the beginning of the wars, the Duke de Guise, who had command of the royal troops, wished to take possession of Montargis. He sent his wife Anne to her mother, and threatened, in the name of the King, to have her shut up in a convent if she did not dismiss the Protestant refugees. Anne, the Duchess of Guise, had no aversion to the Protestants; she was suspected of a certain leniency toward those who looked upon her mother as a Providence. The Duchess stood by her rights, but she could not as easily defend herself against her Catholic subjects as against her own daughter. The little town of Montargis and the castle, filled with the retainers of the Duchess, were violently hostile to each other. So it was in many places in France: the battles fought by the Catholic and Huguenot armies were fought again, on a smaller scale, in a number of provinces and cities. The feelings of the Duchess in those troubled times can easily be imagined. When her son-in-law was assassinated on the 18th of January, 1563, before the walls of Orléans, which he was besieging, there was a great feeling of relief among the Protestants: Orléans was saved and their greatest enemy had fallen; but, as Morel wrote to Calvin: "The Duchess is full of affection for our brethren and of sympathy for their sufferings, but she cannot help wishing well to her son-in-law, on account of her daughter." And in another letter: "It is, for her, a painful trial, as zeal for the religion of Christ is at war with the affections of the flesh."

The Edict of Amboise, which was signed at the end of the first civil war, was favorable to the nobility; they were allowed to celebrate Protestant services in their castles. Renée tried, after the peace, to effect a reconciliation between the Guises and the Châtillons, but she could not obtain much from the Guises, who accused Coligny of complicity in the murder of the late Duke.

"Antoinette de Bourbon," says De Thou, "the mother of the defunct, a woman respectable for her conduct and her modesty, marched at the head of the family, and, near her, Anne of Este, the widow of the Duke, both in long black gowns; they were followed by the children of the Duke and by their ladies, who filled the air with their moanings. The relatives, the connections, the friends in mourning dresses, ended the lugubrious procession. Arriving before the King, they all fell on their knees. The King bade them rise and promised to look after the affair, but postponed judgment till a more favorable time."

The vengeance of the Guises really took place on the fatal night of St. Bartholomew, when the unjustly accused Coligny was assassinated in his bed by the orders of the new Duke de Guise. The Duchess of Ferrara had been invited to go to Paris for the wedding of the King of Navarre and of Marguerite, the King's sister. She arrived there on the 12th of August, in company with the King of Navarre and a number of Protestant noblemen. She could not stop at her daughter's house, but received the hospitality of an old friend who lived in the neighborhood of Notre Dame. She could not, thanks to the distance from the Louvre, witness the horrible scenes which occurred on the night of the 24th of August in the palace of the King and in its neighborhood. As soon as the gates of Paris were reopened, she left the capital, which had become a scene of carnage. She had to accept an escort from her grandson, the Duke de Guise, the assassin of Coligny. She went as rapidly as she could to Montargis. She had succeeded in taking with her among her servants a few Protestants, who owed their lives to her. Her terror was such that for a time she ceased to try to evangelize the town of Montargis, as she had done before. She was ardently urged by her daughter and by Queen Catherine to make a public profession of Catholicism, but she resisted these entreaties. None of her children had followed her way: her son Alphonse was an ardent and intolerant Catholic; her son Luigi was a cardinal of the Roman Church; Anne, her eldest daughter, was bound to the Guise interest; her two other daughters had become almost strangers to her.

She died, after a short illness, at Montargis, on the 15th of June, 1575. She had, it may be said, a double funeral—one according to her own instructions, a second which was celebrated according to the instructions of the Duke of Ferrara a few days later. Her will, which is very detailed, is given in M. Rodocanachi's work. He gives also, *in extenso*, a spiritual will which she wrote at Montargis, and which shows exactly what her spiritual views were. This document leaves no doubt of her fervent attachment to the doctrines in which she had been bred, which had been expounded to her by Calvin, Beza, and others, and to which she had been faithful amid so many trials.

Correspondence.

"REDEMPTION" MONEY BEFORE AND AFTER "THE CRIME OF '73."

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The advocates of the free and unlimited coinage of silver at the ratio of 16 to 1 complain that there is a great scarcity of "redemption" money in the United States. They say that the suspension of the coinage of silver dollars in 1873 (called demonetization) "struck down" one-half of the redemption money of this people, and that all our financial ills are attributable to that fact.

The reports of the Director of the United States Mint contain some interesting information about "redemption" money which the silver party will find it worth while to think about.

In 1873 our stock of gold was estimated at	$128,389,864
Silver dollars coined up to 1873	8,031,238
Fractional silver coined up to 1853	76,734,964
Total "redemption" money in 1873	$213,156,066

Prior to 1853, fractional silver was of full weight and unrestricted legal tender. It was therefore just as good "redemption" money as the silver dollar. In that year fractional silver coins were reduced in weight and their legal-tender quality was restricted to sums of $5 (now $10), and they thus became subsidiary coins, but this legislation did not affect fractional silver coined prior to 1853. As a matter of fact, none of the fractional silver coins were in circulation in 1853, but let us give the silver party the benefit of the doubt, and assume that they were and constituted a part of our stock of "redemption" money and were "struck down" when the dollars were.

From 1873 to 1896 gold "redemption" money was coined to the amount of	$997,076,991
Stock of gold and silver "redemption" money in 1873	213,156,066
Increase (about 368 per cent.)	$783,920,925

All of the gold coined since 1873 was not, however, in circulation in 1896.

On July 1, 1896, the Director of the Mint estimated our gold stock at	$600,100,000
Stock of gold and silver in 1873	213,156,066
Increase (about 181 per cent.)	$386,943,934
Population in 1896	71,390,000
Population in 1873	41,677,000
Increase (about 71 per cent.)	29,713,000
"Redemption" money per capita in 1896	$8 40
"Redemption" money per capita in 1873	5 10

An increase since 1873 of 181 per cent. in our stock of "redemption" money, as compared with an increase of 71 per cent. in population, does not appear to indicate that our people are suffering from the scarcity of "redemption" money to any appreciable extent.

Respectfully yours,

Clayton Harrington.

Dallas, Texas, October 12, 1896.

THE BLAND BILL AND THE FALL IN SILVER.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In the many articles and speeches on the silver question, there is one phase which it seems to me has not had the consideration it deserves. I refer to the immense stimulus given to the production of silver in this and other countries by the silver-purchasing clauses of the Bland-Allison and the Sherman acts, which stimulus must have operated to attract an immense amount of capital to the industry of silver-mining and smelting, and by the laws of competition greatly reduced the cost of production. What an immense encouragement the acts referred to must have proved, can best be imagined by stopping to consider the effect on the production of any other metal or manufactured article should the Government be compelled by law to purchase at market prices each month stated quantities of such products, amounting to from 21 to 28 per cent. of the entire world's production. Of course, the first effect of such legislation would be to advance prices, then to attract much new capital, which, with the added business energy and inventive genius it would bring to bear, would soon greatly lower the cost of production, and finally the price, unless the demand increased proportionately or the price was artificially maintained.

Has not this been just the history of the fall in the cost of production of silver in the last twenty years, and does not this account for the fact that the cost of the production of silver has fallen more rapidly than that of any other metal or commodity? I venture to say that no Government ever attempted by "bounty" or "protective tariff" to give such a "bonus" to the production of anything as was given by our Government to the producers of silver, and it seems to me these immense purchases of silver did far more to increase the production of silver and reduce its cost and value than if the principle of the unlimited coinage of silver on a 16-to-1 ratio had been

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adopted in 1878, when the Bland-Allison Act was passed. FREDERIC A. DELANO.

CHICAGO, 1933 INDIANA AVENUE, October 11, 1896.

THE SILVER NUISANCE IN CANADA.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The experience of Canada with our silver during the civil war affords an illustration of the Gresham law which, at the present time, it is worth noting and remembering.

During and after the war, silver always stood on the American exchanges at a discount below gold which varied from day to day, sometimes reaching 5 per cent. and over. Prior to the war, American silver had circulated freely in Canada as change, and was on a par with gold and Canadian banknotes. When, however, it could be bought at a discount, it became the exclusive currency of Canada, driving out gold and banknotes as effectually as the greenbacks had driven it out of this country. All the current transactions of life were effected in silver. The shopkeepers stuck up notices that silver would not be accepted except at a discount, yet never refused it at par. Wages were invariably settled in it. Every one who had money to pay went to the broker, gave his gold check, pocketed the discount, and paid his bill with silver at its face value. The banks kept with their customers a silver account and a gold account. It was aptly called "the silver nuisance," and was worse than a nuisance, for every merchant's stock in trade varied in value from day to day. As it was, the small traders were the heaviest sufferers, but, had the nuisance continued long, they would have covered themselves by raising the price of their goods, and the real sufferers would then have been the wage-earners.

Effort after effort was made to buy up the silver and export it, but it flowed back as quickly as it was shovelled out. The evil was at last remedied by a curious manœuvre of Sir John McDonald's Finance Minister, Sir Francis Hincks. He issued a proclamation that, after a certain date, the American quarter was to be received for only twenty cents, and the half-dollar for only forty cents, or far below their intrinsic value. Of course every one laughed at the proclamation and at Sir Francis's presumption in supposing that his fiat would alter the actual value of anything, still less of money. But, on the Sunday before the proclamation came into force, it was read from the pulpit of every Roman Catholic parish church in the Province of Quebec, and therefore, when the day came round, there was not a market-woman or a small French trader who would take a quarter or a half-dollar except at the value named. When a large section of the people refused to accept the silver, save at its real value, it disappeared from circulation as spontaneously as it had entered. JAMES DOUGLAS.

FREE SILVER A MEANS, NOT AN END.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Doubtless many people have felt the need of a laboratory method for the investigation of the motives at the basis of the free-silver agitation. As the nearest practicable approach to this method, I have been conversing quite freely with a large number of advocates of that cause, and have sought to find from each individual just what his reasons were for espousing it. One of the most radical of these men, after having spent a number of hours in my study, acknowledged that he could not see that free silver was going to do any good; but he insisted that "The People" were in this contest against the "Moneyed Classes," and he wanted to see "The People" score a victory even if it did cost them something. Others made similar statements, and all seemed to be prompted by similar motives, except one who had a mortgage on his farm, and who said boldly that he wanted cheap dollars with which to pay it off.

The result of these observations has been to confirm me in the opinion that, with the exception of those interested in the silver market and a very few dishonest debtors, the advocates of free silver do not care a fig for it in and of itself. Class antagonism, hostility to the wealthy classes, is the basis of the agitation, and the silver question is hit upon simply as a convenient issue. In certain colleges one may sometimes see two bodies of students struggling violently over a harmless cane. To an observer who was not initiated into the mysteries of student sentiment, it might appear that the cane was an object of tremendous importance; but, as a matter of fact, the students care nothing for it on its own account. Class rivalry is the cause of the "scrap," and, for certain traditional reasons, a cane is a convenient thing to "scrap" over. It furnishes an issue just as the silver question does in the present campaign.

Any one who will take the trouble to acquaint himself with the feelings and sentiments of the less enlightened classes, whether rural or urban, will find that there is a vast deal of hostility toward the wealthy classes. The question is not whether this feeling is justified or not—no one will defend it—but the question is, what are the wealthy classes going to do about it? There may be no serious danger in ignoring it, but it is at least an element of unsafety. So long as it remains it will be a potential factor for evil. When the silver craze dies out, some other and equally dangerous movement will set in to take its place, to disturb industry, and unsettle society. The interests of the wealthy are endangered by the existence of this sentiment, and, what is more to the point, this sentiment will be removed only by the action of those against whom it is directed. T. N. CARVER.

OBERLIN, O., October 16, 1896.

HUMBUG FROM CANTON.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I have seen it stated that the present tariff (miscalled the Wilson bill) is, on the average, only 4 per cent. lower than the McKinley tariff; is this statement correct? If it be true, what are we to think of the following words of Mr. McKinley, addressed to a delegation from West Virginia, reported in the New York *Tribune* of October 12?

"Is it not true that partial free trade has injured us one and all? Is it not true that partial free trade has injured every interest and every industry in West Virginia? Have not the people and the Government grown steadily poorer under its destructive operations? Have not both producer and consumer been injured? The Southern, in common with all the other States, steadily advanced under the protective system."

Can any sensible and honest man call a tariff higher than any the Republicans ever cared to demand, or dared to demand before the advent of Mr. McKinley, "partial free trade"? And what are we to think of the narrow partisanship, the mental and moral capacity, of the man capable of such an utterance? Is it not a bugle call to all real advocates of freer trade to vote for Palmer and Buckner, following the sound advice of Thomas F. Bayard, who means to die a Democrat (like his illustrious namesake) "*sans peur et sans reproche*"?

W. ALLEN JOHNSON.

MIDDLETOWN, CONN., October 18, 1896.

CHAUCER AND ITALY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The argument for fixing the beginning of Chaucer's Italian period at the time of his first journey to Italy is based on his own statement, in the Prologue to the 'Clerk's Tale,' that he

"Lerned [the tale of Griselda] at Padowe of a worthy clerk,
Fraunceys Petrark,"

together with the confirmatory evidence that Chaucer was in Italy on the King's business for some months during the year 1372-3. This business was with the Duke and certain merchants of Genoa, but we know that Chaucer visited Florence also on this occasion, whence he might easily have gone on to Padua, where Petrarch was then living, in the suburb of Arquà. It is a most natural inference that the young English poet visited the old Italian one when he came into his neighborhood. They were both courtiers, both diplomatists, both stylists in literature; Chaucer had just entered upon the stupendous task, which he performed so well and with such apparent ease, of creating a style in English where none had before existed, while Petrarch was the greatest living stylist, the most distinguished man of letters in Europe. I am disposed to lay stress on Petrarch's attraction for Chaucer on the score of style, because it seems to me additional proof, if any is needed, of the actual meeting of the two poets. Chaucer goes right on here in his Prologue to say,

"the laureate poete,
Hight this clerk, whos rethoryke sweete
Enlumined al Itaille of poetrye."

Further, Petrarch's letter to Boccaccio, which serves as the preface to his version of the tale of Griselda, "De obedientia et fide uxoria mythologia," is dated June 8, 1373. At the time of the supposed visit, therefore, Petrarch must either have been about completing his version, or just through with it. With the tale fresh in mind, he must have told it to his visitor, especially since he has given us his word that, even before the idea of turning the story into Latin occurred to him, he was so pleased with it that he committed it to memory for the express purpose of repeating it to his friends. We learn also from Petrarch that, although he had only recently read the 'Decameron,' in 1373, he had heard this particular tale "many years" (*multos annos*) before. Petit de Julleville thinks that Petrarch must have known it from some early French *fabliau*. It is a well-known fact that the tale of Patient Grisel ('Decameron,' x. 10) was far and away the most popular Decameron story in mediæval literature. Legrand d'Aussy mentions upwards of twenty translations of it that he had seen in the French prose of the fourteenth century, in such collections as the 'Miroir des Dames' or the 'Exemples de Bonnes et Mauvaises Femmes.' So popular was the story that a secular mystery play, *Le Mystère de Griselidis*, unique of its kind, was represented

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in Paris towards the end of the fourteenth century.

It is not at all improbable that Chaucer was also familiar with the story in some crude French form. He had served in the French wars, he was widely read in French literature, and he was a lover of good stories, on the alert for good ones. Suppose Chaucer did know the story, suppose he had been attracted by it as a promising subject, and then had heard it from the lips of Petrarch. Fancy what an impression it would have made on him! He would of course have wanted Petrarch's literary version, and Petrarch would of course have given it to him at parting. That Chaucer had Petrarch's Latin version before him as he wrote and translated is evident from the MSS., and it is difficult to see how he came by it, except from Petrarch or through Petrarch. Prof. Skeat's conclusion is, that the closeness of the translation and the test of metre both argue that the 'Clerk's Tale' was written soon after the first Italian journey, either in 1373 or early in 1374, as indeed would be the natural order of things. Line 29 of the Prologue to the 'Clerk's Tale,'

"He is *now* deed and nayled in his cheste,"

suggests that Petrarch was still living when Chaucer first wrote the tale. (Petrarch died at Arquà, July 18, 1374.)

Finally, Skeat ('The Works of Geoffrey Chaucer,' vol. i., pp. xxiv, xxv) cites the account from Dec. 1, 1372, to May 23, 1373, that Prof. Mather quotes, but he does not infer from it that Chaucer returned to England on the last date mentioned in the Foreign Accounts roll. Nor does he say that the additional moneys were paid "on his return to England." He says they were paid Feb. 4, 1374, two and a half months after Chaucer is known to have been in England from the fact that on Nov. 22, 1373, he drew his pension in person.

MARY AUGUSTA SCOTT.

BALTIMORE, October 19, 1896.

Notes.

DODD, MEAD & Co. will publish a 'Comprehensive Index to Universal Prose Fiction,' by Zella Allen Dixson, A.M., Librarian of the University of Chicago. It is described as "an arrangement into an alphabetical list of all works of fiction, in all languages, which are founded upon facts—historical, physical, psychological, or moral"—in other words, "novels with a purpose," and no others. It will embrace more than 10,000 entries. They also announce 'The Cure of Souls,' by Ian Maclaren (Rev. John Watson), being his Lyman Beecher lectures on Preaching recently delivered at Yale University.

Harper & Bros. have nearly ready 'Impressions and Experiences,' by W. D. Howells.

"The Sportsman's Library" projected by Edward Arnold, under the editorship of Sir Herbert Maxwell, will be issued at the rate of two or three volumes a year, and will consist of the best works of past writers on sport, with facsimile and other illustrations.

The Macmillan Co. will shortly issue 'The Castles of England, their Story and Structure,' by Sir James Mackenzie, Bart.; and in connection with Bohn's publishers will begin a new edition of Swift's prose works, with a biographical and critical introduction by Mr. Lecky, and a complete bibliography of Swift's writings by Temple Scott.

Longmans, Green & Co. are to undertake "a series of books on the practical workings of the functions of the state and society, with especial reference to American conditions and experience," and hence entitled the "American Citizen Series." It will be under the editorial direction of Dr. Albert Bushnell Hart of Harvard University. The volumes already in preparation are 'Financial History of the United States,' by Prof. Francis R. Dewey of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology; 'American Foreign Policy: Diplomacy and International Law,' by Prof. John B. Moore of Columbia; 'History of Political Parties in the United States,' by Prof. Anson D. Morse of Amherst; 'Elements of Political Economy,' by Prof. E. R. A. Seligman of Columbia; 'Outline of Practical Sociology,' by Carroll D. Wright; 'Actual Government, as applied under American Conditions,' by Dr. Hart. The same firm will begin their "Harvard Historical Studies" with 'The Suppression of the African Slave Trade to the United States of America, 1638-1870,' by William E. Burghardt Du Bois, a colored graduate of Harvard, a student also at the University of Berlin, Professor of Latin at Wilberforce University, Ohio, etc. Mr. Du Bois is a native of Massachusetts.

'The Story of Canada,' by the Hon. J. G. Bourinot, and 'The Story of the Balkan States,' by W. Miller, will be the two next volumes in the "Story of the Nations Series" of the Messrs. Putnam.

'Kallirrhoe,' a dramatic poem by Philip Becker Goetz, is in the press of the Peter Paul Book Co., Buffalo.

Ginn & Co., Boston, announce for the present month a 'Laboratory Manual of Inorganic Chemistry,' by R. P. Williams.

The first part of a 'List of Private Libraries,' compiled by G. Hedeler, Leipzig, is to be ready in December, and will include more than 500 important collections in the United States and Canada. The accounts of the number of volumes and special features for the most part proceed from the owners themselves, and are conveniently condensed in an alphabetical arrangement. A subject-index will satisfy curiosity as to the whereabouts of special collections. The second part of this useful series will deal with the private libraries of Great Britain.

The epithets "superb," "marvellous," and "stupendous" bestowed on a series of 253 designs by Bartolomeo Pinelli, which were executed in Rome some seventy years ago, would not occur to us in connection with them, but their admirers in Italy, on their being brought to light three years ago, formed a committee of publication and intrusted Count Angelo de Gubernatis with the descriptive text. The result was an *édition de luxe* entitled 'Illustrated Mythology,' the letter-press in five languages, viz., Italian, German, French, Spanish, and English (Rome: G. Maussier & F. O. Maruca). But as the Greek myths appeal to a much wider audience than could afford to purchase such a work, the publishers have proposed a wider circulation for these sepia drawings, and are now soliciting subscriptions for any one of the five sets. The designs are at least interesting and scholarly.

The Dutch publishing-house of Loman & Funk, at The Hague, is publishing an authorized version, by Dr. D. C. Nijhoff, of Miss Ruth Putnam's 'Life of William of Orange.' Miss Putnam has just been admitted to membership in the Society of Netherlands Literature at Leyden, which dates from 1778, and is the first foreigner of her sex thus to be honored.

The student of the history of modern Italy cannot afford to ignore the voluminous 'Storia Critica del Risorgimento Italiano,' by Carlo Tivaroni (Turin: Roux, Frassati & Co.), the first six volumes of which bring the story down to 1849. The most recent volume, the first of a new series devoted to "L'Italia degli Italiani," covers the period from 1849 to 1859. Sig. Tivaroni is as dry and charmless as a legal document; but, like the latter, he sets forth plain facts, and by giving, in addition, references to material newly uncovered, he is, in a certain degree, indispensable. Works like his, which have their counterparts in all languages, especially in the German, suggest that the time may come when the distinction between historians and historical hodmen will at last be frankly recognized, and that the latter, instead of dumping together pieces of historical material with comments of their own, will collect and print *verbatim* all the material bearing on any event, and leave the writing of history to historians—men, that is, endowed with the faculty of selection, of arrangement, of proportion, and with corresponding literary skill. The current notion that any one who heaps up a sufficiently ponderous mass of citations from "original sources" is a historian, degrades a calling which has been, next to that of the poet, the highest in literature.

A translation, with illustrations, by Emily J. Harding, of 'Fairy Tales of the Slav Peasants and Herdsmen,' from the French of Alex. Chodsko, comes to us from Dodd, Mead & Co. (London: Geo. Allen). One very interesting feature about this collection is the classification of the tales, so far as possible, into groups which present several versions of the same story. In no case are the versions sufficiently similar to be wearisome, while the variations are instructive to the students of such lore. Under the caption "The Abode of the Gods," for example, we find three stories: The Two Brothers; Time and the Kings of the Elements; and the Twelve Months. There is a family resemblance between many of those which are unclassified, and between the entire collection and the numerous tales from Slavic sources which have appeared in divers previous volumes, published during the past few years. As a rule such tales are better when translated directly from the originals. In this case, however, very little, if anything, seems to have been lost by filtration through the French, and the rendering is unusually lively and elegant. The illustrations are a delightful addition. As for the contents, since the children of the present day (not to mention their elders) are not much given to taking their reading-lessons very seriously, the glorification of the customary trinity, *Luck, Love, Laziness, may not be* productive of any detrimental results.

Miss Marie A. Molineux, Ph.D., has followed an excellent plan in compiling 'A Phrase-Book from the Poetic and Dramatic Works of Robert Browning' (Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.). Unlike the editors of some other phrase-books we have seen, she has succeeded in selecting and arranging her material in such a way that the student, if he remembers any significant word in a quotation, can readily find it in her volume. Besides nearly 300 pages of phrases, she adds an index of more than 200 double-column pages of the significant words not elsewhere noted. Thus the book will be invaluable, not merely for any one who wishes to find or verify a phrase, but also to the critic and the philological student of Browning. One need read only a few pages of the first part at random to discover, better perhaps than by reading many of the poems consecutively, the

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quality of Browning's thoughts, and his skill in shaping them. These are the very bricks with which he builds his structures; how do they stand the test of comparison with similar detached thoughts and phrases of Shakspere and Milton, of Pope, Byron, Wordsworth, and Tennyson, the English poets who occupy the chief place in Bartlett's 'Familiar Quotations'? Likewise, a study of the Index of Words reveals the range of Browning's vocabulary. Here we recognize his habit of coining new words or of reviving old ones; his power of suffusing commonplace expressions with a glow of imagination; his fondness for the harsh, the outlandish, the bizarre. We cannot enter into details further than to point out his predilection for compound words, which, as Coleridge long ago remarked, run counter to the genius of our language. "Pig-of-lead-like," "pity-worth," "safe-return-price," "sister-turned-mother," "skull-and-cross-bones-banner," are specimens of what we mean. The volume is well planned to form a companion to the Riverside Browning.

The Historical Sketches of Staff and Line of the Army, which appeared originally in the *Journal of the Military Service Institution*, have been collected and republished under the general title of 'The Army of the United States,' edited by Brig.-Gen. Rodenbough and Major Haskin (New York: Maynard, Merrill & Co.). The history of each staff department, of the Corps of Engineers, the Signal Corps, and of each regiment has been broadly sketched by a chosen historian from its own numbers. These historical sketches are now brought together by the editors in a closely printed octavo of 740 pages, illustrated by portraits of the generals-in-chief from Washington downward. The work is, of course, confined to the organizations of the regular army, and will be a valuable book of permanent use for reference to the history of the units of staff and line which compose the army.

The officers at the Fort Leavenworth Army School have added two useful books to the list which has already been brought out by them. In the International Military Series edited by Capt. Wagner, Lieut. Reichmann (Ninth United States Infantry) gives a good translation of Von Trotha's 'Tactical Studies on the Battles around Plevna' in the Russian-Turkish war; a work recognized as an authority in Europe, and one which criticises the handling of the troops on both sides with judicial frankness. Lieut. Dickman (Third United States Cavalry) has published in smaller form Baron von der Goltz's 'Conduct of War' in a pleasing idiomatic rendering into English. The original has the merit which has given a just reputation to the author—a perfectly clear and simple presentation of matters commonly thought to be complicated and abstruse. No treatise so small as this is more successful in giving the principles of military conduct in an intelligible form. It can be understood by any one of ordinary education, and is entirely trustworthy as being an accepted exposition of the subject according to the most recent lights. The translator deserves credit for the good quality of his work. Both volumes are published by the Hudson-Kimberly Publishing Company, Kansas City, Mo.

Another book dealing with military incident, if not with military science, is Archibald Forbes's 'Camps, Quarters, and Casual Places' (Macmillan). Mr. Forbes has brought together about a score of papers contributed by him to reviews and magazines, and nearly all of them gain permanent value from the way in which his large experience and observation of warlike events and of leading officers and statesmen tell upon his judgment of historical events. To have known the actors in a great campaign closely enough to judge of their personal quality, is so great an advantage for one who is a keen observer of human character that, when he has also the author's literary power, his papers have an authentic trustworthiness and interest quite beyond the common. In this way Mr. Forbes's "Version of Balaclava," "The Cawnpore of To-day," "Bismarck before and during the Franco-German War," etc., become something more than casual contributions to current literature, attractive as they would be in that view alone. They are lasting contributions to historical criticism.

The 'Student's Lyell,' a manual of elementary geology, edited by Prof. J. W. Judd of the Royal College of Science (London), although published in the Student's Series by Harper & Brothers, New York, is so essentially a British text-book that it hardly needs a review for schools or colleges in this country. If English readers of the *Nation* desire our opinion of it, we must regret not to be able to accord it high praise. The backward arrangement of the stratified series from the newest to the oldest rocks is as awkward in geology as it would be in any other essentially historical study. The chapters on the successive formations are so largely given over to palæontology that they are of little service to the average student of geology. Even for the British Isles, which are treated in much detail, it is impossible to gather a clear idea of geological progress. The great unconformity of the New Red on the Palæozoic rocks, so vastly important in England, is passed over as lightly as the minor unconformity of the Cretaceous on the earlier Mesozoic. As a whole, the treatment is too serious and technical for the general reader or the ordinary student; and for the advanced student the work is not so well elaborated as Geikie's admirable text-book. Here, as in other examples that might be named, it does not seem useful to furbish up a famous old text-book in the belief that it will make a good new one.

In a brief paper on "The Growth of the French Canadian Race in America," lately published by the American Academy of Political and Social Science, Mr. John Davidson of the University of New Brunswick presents some interesting statistics tending to confirm Malthus's well-known theory of the law of increase of population. The practical isolation of the French in Canada, the reliable data obtainable for a period of some two hundred and fifty years, and the prevalence of conditions of life "at least as favorable as in any other land," not only make it possible to ascertain with great accuracy the rate of natural increase, but also, in Mr. Davidson's opinion, render that rate especially fit to be taken as a standard by which to test Malthus's theory. The sum of his inquiry is that from 1765 to 1890-'91 the French Canadian population doubled every twenty-seven years, or in but two years more than the period taken by Malthus as his "standard." As for the general opinion that the French Canadians are multiplying much more rapidly than the rest of the population, statistics show that only in the census year 1891 does the average size of families in the Province of Quebec exceed the average for all Canada, and even this is offset by a decline in the Canadian average from 5.3 in 1881 to 5.2 in 1891. The extremely high birth-rate is counterbalanced by extraordinary infant mortality, so that "after the first year the proportion living at any given age varies little from the proportion among other Canadians." The application of Malthus's "checks" in this connection would be an interesting topic for further investigation.

The American Economic Association has recently added to its publications a series of economic "Studies," which are addressed to the general reader quite as much as to the special student of political economy. We notice among the last two numbers a compact history of the "Populist Movement," by Dr. F. L. McVey, and a translation, at the hands of Dr. John Cummings, of an address on the "Present Position of Bimetallism," by Prof. Lexis of Göttingen. Prof. Lexis is as competent an authority on monetary questions as can be found among the Germans, and his review of the present position of bimetallism in the world at large is an admirable example of lucid and impartial statement. Among its more elaborate publications the Association has recently issued Mr. Hoffman's "Race Traits and Tendencies of the American Negro," and we may also mention Prof. Irving Fisher's monograph on "Appreciation and Interest," in which that writer undertakes to show that a decline in prices brings with it a fall in the rate of interest, tending to offset any loss to the debtor from lowered prices. We are glad to take note of the activity of the Association, which is established solely to promote the advance of economic knowledge. Its secretary, Prof. J. W. Jenks, Ithaca, N. Y., will be glad to receive applications for membership.

A correspondent of the London *Times* calls attention to the progress made by the Madras Government in the arrangement and publication of its early records. Among recent finds is a file of old Dutch papers which throw further light on the struggle between the Dutch and the English for the control of India. The printing of the Consultation Books, or official diaries of the Government, for the seventeenth century, several volumes of which have already appeared, is to be continued. Another important discovery is the complete manuscript, in seventeen volumes, of the journal of Runga Pillay, the confidential agent of Dupleix while the latter was at the head of French affairs in India. Pillay has been called the Indian Pepys, and his journal, first made known in 1846, forms a minute record of the struggle between the French and the English, from 1742 to 1754, for the possession of the Carnatic. The original is in Tamil, but an English translation is nearly completed, and will be edited, with an historical introduction, by Mr. Forrest, the Director of Records to the Government of India. The Madras Government is also likely to aid the publication of a new edition of the Abbé Dubois's 'Customs, Institutions, and Ceremonies of the Hindus,' for nearly a century one of the great authorities on the condition of southern India just before the British ascendency. An English version appeared in 1817, and the original French in 1825. Dubois, however, thoroughly revised and largely rewrote his work, and the complete manuscript, of which there is a copy in the India Office, has lately been found among the records of the Madras Secretariat.

We note the conclusion, in the September-October number of the *Revue Historique*, of Mr. C. H. Firth's descriptive bibliography, begun in the previous issue, of publications between 1885 and 1895 relating to the history of England in the seventeenth century. The two articles form a valuable supplement to

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existing bibliographies, and should prove especially useful to teachers.

At the moment when a report, however incredible, is in circulation of the disappearance of Robinson Crusoe's island, Mr. Henry F. Waters lays his hand on the original will of Alexander Selkirk, and publishes it in the current (October) issue of the *New England Genealogical and Historical Journal*. It is dated December 12, 1720, and was proved by his remarried wife December 5, 1723. The will was not unknown to John Howell, Selkirk's biographer, in 1829. Mr. Waters's regular "Genealogical Gleanings" are remarkable for the number of connections established between this and the other side of the Atlantic, as Allyn and Allen, Cade, Meriam, Shotton, Cole, Needham, Fuller, Barney, and Hardy. Mr. Worthington C. Ford continues his Jefferson and Callender correspondence, getting Callender into Richmond jail for sedition, at the time of Gabriel's rising—one of the most famous of the slave insurrections. Callender tells of the trial and the hanging in batches of the conspirators, and cites the acquittal of one Baptist preacher, George, "the property of a Billy Burton," as evidence of the working of "a very humane law," by which no negro could be condemned in Virginia to capital punishment unless the judges were unanimous. The real motive of the law was to prevent any reckless destruction of "property," as appears from Callender's reporting that George's master swore to an alibi for George at the trial, but "soon after the tryal was over began to recollect himself, and acknowledged that his *alibi* was founded upon a mistake."

The first number of the fourth volume of President Stanley Hall's *Pedagogical Seminary* (Worcester, Mass.: J. H. Orpha) possesses unusual interest for all who concern themselves with the new "child study," which derives its chief impulse from Clark University. A Fellow of this university, E. W. Bohannon, presents types of peculiar and exceptional children drawn from a very extensive collection of condensed biographies. The array is on the whole somewhat saddening, but the relator's "interpretation of data" is to the effect that "advantageous traits are inherited more than twice as frequently as disadvantageous ones," and that the larger proportion of the worst abnormalities are of non-American (racial) origin. There is a curious "Test of Memory in School Children," by John C. Shaw, and a "Study of Children's Drawings in the Early Years," by Herman T. Lukens, with facsimile illustrations; one series showing a given child's evolution in drawing. The young artist of four years who commented on his own cat, "Only one ear—can't see the other," had never heard of his predecessor with the three-legged cat in Viollet-le-Duc's 'Learning to Draw.' Finally, Miss Sara E. Wiltse contributes a striking preliminary sketch of the extent and nature of child study on scientific lines in this country during the year ending September, 1896.

The "International Congress of Women," which held its sessions in Berlin during the last week in September, was attended by nearly 1,300 delegates from various parts of the world, and among them one young lady from Armenia, Margaret Melik-Beglaryanz, M.D., who gave a most interesting account of the condition of women in her native land and the efforts to promote their higher education. There were representatives from nearly every nation of Europe and from the United States, who read reports on the progress of the movement in their respective countries. The speeches were limited to fifteen minutes, and among those who took part in the debates were several lawyers, a still larger number of doctors of medicine, and one eloquent divine. The discussions embraced a wide range of topics and were admirably conducted. The new civil code of the German Empire was sharply and justly criticised, especially for the degrading position in which it places married women, and the applause with which these strictures were received indicated a general concurrence of public opinion with these views. Altogether it was one of the most attractive and successful of the many "congresses" that have met in Europe during the past summer. The spacious Festsaal of the Rathhaus was constantly crowded, and hundreds sought admission in vain. After the first two days no more tickets were issued, except in rare cases to foreigners who had come from a distance on purpose to attend the meetings.

The fiftieth anniversary of the discovery (first sight) of the planet Neptune by the German astronomer J. G. Galle was celebrated on September 23, on which occasion he received the congratulations of the "International Astronomical Society" then in session at Bamberg, and of the "Association of German Naturalists and Physicians" assembled in Frankfort. The Director of the Berlin Observatory, Prof. Encke, having made the most complete map of the stars then in existence, it was to him that Leverrier wrote requesting him to turn his telescope to a certain point in the heavens determined by his calculations on the disturbance of Uranus. The letter arrived in Berlin on September 23, 1846, and on the same evening Encke's first assistant, Dr. Galle, pointed the telescope in the prescribed direction. One of the first stars that entered the field of vision was the unknown planet. The observation was repeated on the following night, and the planetary character of the new star fully ascertained. Dr. Galle, now in the eighty-fifth year of his age, has been Professor of Astronomy and Director of the Observatory in Breslau since 1851.

—The Smithsonian Institution has just issued Special Bulletin No. 3, which continues Capt. Charles Bendire's 'Life Histories of North American Birds.' The handsome quarto bears date of 1895, having been delayed more than a year in passing through the Government Printing-Office; but wrong dates of official publications are unfortunately too common to excite surprise. The former volume of this work, which appeared in 1892, treated of the raptorial, gallinaceous, and columbine birds; the present one contains the psittacine and picarian groups, the non-oscine *Passeres*, and the corvine and icterine families of *Passeres*. The work may be regarded as resuming the oölogical investigations which were conducted by the Smithsonian in former years, but which broke down after the appearance in 1857 of vol. i. of a 'North American Oölogy,' by the late Dr. T. M. Brewer. Meanwhile the collection has been enormously increased, and it is now by far the best one in existence, whether we regard its extent or the exceptionally excellent manner in which the specimens are preserved. The colored lithographic plates which illustrate both of Capt. Bendire's volumes, drawn by Mr. John L. Ridgway and engraved by the Ketterlinus Company of Philadelphia, are the best of the kind ever produced in this country, and compare favorably with the finest results attained in England in the representation of this notoriously difficult class of objects. The text, as far as it goes, is the outcome of nearly lifelong studies on the part of the author, both in the field and in the cabinet, supplemented by the results of correspondence with many other investigators. It is elaborately descriptive of the breeding habits, as well as of the nests and eggs themselves; and further notable for the precision with which geographical distribution in general, and the breeding range in particular, have been worked out. But as data in such cases have usually been published as soon as secured, in the *Auk* or elsewhere, the present somewhat belated work represents rather the diffusion of knowledge in conveniently accessible form than its actual increase; and the ease with which the author stands first among American oölogists is offset to some extent by the evident laboriousness of his application to literary pursuits. We also regret to note a number of typographical infelicities.

—A report on the recent explorations made at Copan, Honduras, was made public last month and will no doubt attract the attention of archæologists as well as of scientists in general. Though most of these remarkable ruins are under ground, the earliest description which we have of them (by the *oïdor* D. de Palacio, 1576) has ever since maintained the interest in them; systematic explorations were made by Stephens and Catherwood, and recently by Alfred P. Maudsley of England (1885). The Peabody Museum of American Archæology and Ethnology at Harvard University sent its first expedition to the ruins in October, 1891, having intrusted it to the charge of M. H. Saville and John G. Owens, then assistants of the curator, Prof. F. W. Putnam. Three further expeditions had to be sent to the spot, for the work of surveying and digging was much more considerable than could have been foreseen. Mr. Owens, who directed the second expedition, succumbed to a malarial attack in February, 1893; Mr. Maudsley was placed in charge of the third, and Mr. Gordon of the fourth expedition. Explorations were possible only during the winter months, from December to June. The ruins lie at an altitude of about 2,000 feet above sea level, twelve miles south of the Guatemala boundary, in a dry, hilly section along Copan River. They all belong to a prehistoric period, and the carelessness of the natives has contributed largely to their destruction. They are grouped with great regularity around squares or central *plazas*, and appear as pyramidal and oblong mounds, as temples with stairways leading up to them, as pyramids, tombs, underground walls, vaults, and other structures of the most varied description. Walls are built up of square-cut blocks of rock, and ornamented with sculptures somewhat ruder than those discovered on the north coast of Yucatan. Plaster coatings in different colors were intended for embellishment. The monoliths, or four-sided stelas, show sculptures of human or divine beings, and in front of each is a disk-shaped "altar," standing on four supports resembling the feet of a quadruped. Many of the structures are connected by carefully laid pavements; the vaults and doorways prove that the native architects were still far remote from the invention of the round or keystone arch, for the blocks are left square at their edges. The images intended to represent animals and men all exhibit the same grotesque appearance as they do in other remains of the Maya coun-

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tries. The statue of the "singing girl" on Plate ix. is expressive of character in her features, and critics may even find in it an attempt at portraiture from life. The photographs accompanying this report represent the objects taken from their most instructive side in a manner that makes us wish for more. In fact, the field explored is but a small part of what will be found and described in future years, for the ruins extend further for nine miles up along the shores of Copan River. The present report, though full of information, purports to be "preliminary" only; it forms vol. i., No. 1 of "Memoirs of the Peabody Museum," the special title being: "Prehistoric Ruins of Copan, Honduras."

—One of the most important and least known of the great collections of books in Europe is the Imperial Public Library of St. Petersburg, which, according to a recently published report, contains more than a million printed volumes, over 30,000 manuscripts, several hundred cases (*thecæ*) of autographs, and some 80,000 drawings and engravings. The nucleus of the library was the famous collection of books and manuscripts made by the Polish ecclesiastic and bibliographer Count Zaluski, who generously placed these treasures, numbering in all 293,000 titles, in a separate building at Warsaw for the public use, and on his death as Bishop of Kiev, in 1774, left them as a "bequest to the Polish people." After the defeat of Kosciuszko and the third partition of Poland in 1795, they were seized and confiscated by Russia as heir to the property of the Polish Republic (lately deceased), and brought to St. Petersburg. Owing to carelessness or official corruption, 30,000 works, many of them of rare value, disappeared during the transfer. Early in the present century the library was greatly enriched by the addition of the collection made by Dubrowski in Paris during the French Revolution, and containing historical documents acquired at the destruction of the Bastille and manuscripts of inestimable worth from the abbeys of St. Germain-des-Près, St. Maur, and other cloisters plundered by the sans-culottes. Then came the spoils of new confiscations in Poland after the suppression of the revolt of 1830, among which were the library of a scientific society in Warsaw, with more than 2,000 manuscripts belonging originally to old Polish churches and cloisters, and the library of the Jesuit College in Polotzk. The latter, instead of being put in its proper place, was stowed away in a building connected with the Ministry of the Interior, where it was entirely destroyed by fire in 1862. In 1817, Froloff's collection, rich in Russian incunabula, was purchased; this was followed in 1830 by T. Tolstoi's collection of Slavic manuscripts from the 11th century, in 1848 by Kasterin's collection of Slavic printed works, and in 1852 by Pogodin's collection of some 2,000 manuscripts relating to the history of jurisprudence in the 13th century. Other acquisitions have proceeded from successive suppressions of Russian churches and cloisters suspected of sympathy with the See of Rome. The unique character of the Oriental department is due, in a large measure, to Asiatic conquests, and especially to the subjugation of Turkestan by Gen. Kaufmann. Among the incunabula are several that are to be found only here, as, *e. g.*, a missal printed in 1483 by Scheffer in Mainz. We may add that there are more than 5,000 Aldine and Elzevir editions. Unfortunately the arrangement and administration of the library have not kept pace with modern progress in bibliographical and bibliothecal science, and seriously impair its usefulness. On September 13 the corner-stone of a new reading-room was laid. The building is to be three stories high, fireproof, and provided with electric lights and the latest improvements in ventilation and sanitation. It is to be hoped that this edifice will be the starting-point for a thorough reformation of the present management of the library.

—The Norwegian lexicographer and poet Ivar Aasen, who died on September 23, at the age of eighty-three years, was a son of poor peasants. He had not the means nor the time to get a university education, yet though, at the age of eighteen years, he commenced life as an itinerant village teacher, by persevering study, combined with eminent philological talent, he acquired a learning and scientific method which render his works, chief among them his 'Grammar' and 'Dictionary of the Norwegian Popular Language' (1848–1850), called in the second edition of 1864–1873 'Norwegian Grammar' and 'Norwegian Dictionary,' models of philological authorship. By these works he opened up an entirely new territory to the student of the Germanic languages, and showed that the Norwegian language, which in the Middle Ages had been the richest and most cultivated of the Scandinavian languages, was not dead, but still existed, if not as a literary language, on the lips of the people. Aasen's scientific work has gained the unanimous praise of the nation and of every student of Germanic philology. But he was something more than a scientist; he was a reformer. He thought the Norwegian language, the language that he had found living among the people in the valleys and on the hillsides, was good enough to obtain official recognition, and ought in due time to replace the Danish language that had come to be considered the linguistic medium of culture and refinement. So he constructed a kind of normal speech, a general denominator of the different popular dialects, which he wanted to raise to the dignity of a literary language. He himself wrote several dramatic pieces in this language, and some poems which rank among the best modern Norwegian lyrics, and some of which have come to be national songs, hardly second in popularity to Björnson's magnificent poems, sung with feeling and enthusiasm even by those who detest the language in which they are written. Although Aasen, by his advocacy of this linguistic reform, became a sign to be spoken against, he was nevertheless one of the chief factors in the modern Norwegian national development, and the national importance of his work received public acknowledgment by his being granted for the last forty-five years a stipend from the State.

—Very significant is it, to criticlings on the other side of the Atlantic, that so many Americans are found to write *worshiped*, *traveler*, and *hocusing*, for instance. To them, in default of philological inquiry, spellings like these are simply tokens of conceited ignorance. For the enlightenment of such persons, Mr. Alfred Erlebach contributes to the issue of the *Leisure Hour* for October an exhaustive monograph. Taking his stand on analogy, he there formulates, with respect to vocables not compound, the following rule: "A word of two syllables ending in a single consonant preceded by a single vowel, before the addition of such suffixes as *-ed*, *-er*, *-ing*, *-y*, doubles the final consonant only when the accent is on the last syllable of the word, *not otherwise*." That, in the case of certain words of recent introduction, Englishmen manifest an inclination to conform to this general rule is shown by quotations from authors of repute, for *caucusing*, *faceted*, and *focusing*. *Gallopped* and *gossipped*, oddly enough, never had existence; and *biased* is no longer looked upon as peculiar. To pass to longer words than those above referred to, we have always had *paralleled* and *unparalleled*, analogous to which are Dr. Webster's *unequaled* and *imperiled*. It is farther made out, with much besides, that one does well in electing *bayoneted*, *carbureted*, *coroneted*, and *diagramed*, as orthographical. *Handicapped*, *kidnapped*, etc., their bases being composite, are, however, recommended for continued approval. In passing, as to *kidnapped*, *-ing*, *-er*, though Dr. Webster so spelled, his editors strangely strike out their second *p*. Why, then, should they have hesitated at *horsewhiped*? Mr. Erlebach, it is observable, following the advice which has recently emanated from a high quarter, practically favors *disyllable*, in place of the unetymological *dissyllable*, which seems to have been imitated from the French *dissyllabe*.

PALMER MEMORIALS.—I.

Memorials. Part I. Family and Personal. 1766–1865. By Roundell Palmer, Earl of Selborne. Macmillan. 1896.

FEW casual observers of Roundell Palmer's career would have suspected him of an intention to write his own life. If one were to select a man of autobiographical propensity from among the chancellors of the present century, he would choose Lord Brougham or Lord Westbury. Fancy delights to portray them engaged in the task of telling posterity their deeds, their opinions, and their enmities. Either of them had enough assurance for anything. The Earl of Selborne differed in character and instinct from these his eminent predecessors on the woolsack. Combativeness and the spirit of self-glorification were remote from his disposition. He had interests outside of and above the strife of the law courts. Even parliamentary distinction was less than what he prized most. He did his work and won his honors under the promptings of ambition, but always under the restraints of a natural, unaffected piety. Besides being thrice Lord Chancellor, he was a Sunday-school teacher and the editor of the 'Book of Praise.'

The motives which led the Earl of Selborne to describe at length the events of his life are intelligible and sufficient. He belonged to an unusual family, he had reached unusual eminence, and he had a strong historic sense of the value of family records. He wrote primarily for his children. "In the evenings of the summer of 1885," says one of his daughters in the preface, "my father and I were much alone, my mother having died in April of that year; and he then told me more than I had before known of his own father and his early life; and when we went to Siena the following August, I asked him to write these recollections that we might possess them." Fortunately for this suggestion, Lord Selborne had long been accumulating family documents. "I have never kept journals or diaries or any other record of my private thoughts and meditations, but I have a very vivid memory of the earlier part of my life, and it has been my habit to preserve such letters and papers as I thought of permanent interest, whether relating to family or to public

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affairs." While the narrative thus originated was intended first for family eyes, it was also intended for publication as a posthumous work, and every manner of change or deletion has been avoided in conformity with the author's express wish. A passage of the preface vouches for the integrity of the text. "There is much of so intimate and personal a nature that it would not have been given to the world but for loyalty to his known intent and desire in regard to these memorials." The two volumes now published are but an instalment of the whole work. They constitute the first part and are presumably to be followed by at least two more volumes, which will bring down the history of the Palmers and of Lord Selborne to a point some twenty-five years later than 1865, the terminal date of Part I.

Lord Selborne was almost a Hebrew in the strength of his family affection, and these memorials owe their marked unity to his feeling of reverence towards his ancestors and of love towards the members of his own home circle. We state this fact at the outset because an appearance of complexity might seem to be inevitable where so many biographical sketches are given. These digressions do not leave upon the mind the idea of a mixed performance, but serve, rather, to emphasize the continuity and sacredness of the family stem throughout successive generations. Of domestic annals between the reign of Queen Elizabeth, when his paternal ancestry first becomes known, and the marriage of his grandfather, William Palmer, with Mary Horsley in 1766, Lord Selborne has little to say. William Palmer was a prosperous merchant of the City of London. His wife was a sister of Samuel Horsley, Bishop of Rochester, an editor of Newton's works, and secretary of the Royal Society. Five of their six sons went to Charterhouse. There were also three daughters. Lord Selborne's father, William Jocelyn Palmer, went to Oxford, entered the Church, and became rector of adjoining parishes in the diocese of Rochester: Finmere and Mixbury. Two of the sons entered the service of the East India Company, one entered the navy, one entered his father's business, and the sixth became a barrister. The names of Lord Selborne's uncles and aunts and of their children are often on his tongue. Thomas Palmer of the Indian service and Edward Palmer of the navy receive notice in separate chapters. We cannot pause even to mention Lord Selborne's more distant relatives, bound though he was to them by ties of attachment and intimacy. They are too numerous and the main theme of the autobiography is too full of matter. But his father and his eldest brother refuse to be put lightly aside. Standing in the foreground of the canvas, they demand some notice before we pass to the author himself.

William Jocelyn Palmer must have been as near an approach to the poor parson of Chaucer's Prologue as can be reached by a modern clergyman of the Church of England who marries and has a large family:

"I have heard some people speak as if the care of a few hundred souls were insufficient employment for the zeal and energy of a clergyman of mark. My father did not think so. There was no position in the church which he could not (in my belief) have worthily filled, which he might not have ennobled and adorned. But what God had charged him with was the care of those five or six hundred poor people at Mixbury and Finmere, for whom there was no one else to care, among whom there was no praise to be won, no ambition to be gratified. He was content with this and sought for nothing more."

This passage is an epitome of Lord Selborne's character-sketch of his father; and many quotations from long, considerate, inspiring letters show that his children were but the dearest members of his flock. His pride at their academic and professional success was great but not immoderate. He knew how to give good counsel without becoming officious. He remained while he lived the patriarchal centre of his family, and when, thirty-five years after his father's death, Lord Selborne dedicated these sketches to his children, he could say: "Of all the characters and influences here commemorated, that which it has been most a labor of love to me to delineate is your grandfather's; and if, in what you learn concerning him, you find the main interest of this work, I shall be rewarded."

Mention of Lord Selborne'e eldest brother, William, brings us to one of the most striking features of the present work, its theological aspect. The Palmers were not only religious, they were theological. William Palmer, a man of strong personality and conscientiousness, left the Anglican Church and went over to Rome. He had been in sympathy with Newman for many years before his conversion, but the final step was delayed till 1855. Here he is presented in his domestic relations and with much fulness in his relations with the Greek Church. A self-constituted envoy of the Church of England, with no further credentials than a letter from Dr. Routh, President of Magdalen College, Oxford, he set out to determine whether he could be admitted to the Greek communion without formally abjuring the Church of England. He was resident in Russia for considerable periods, and a record of his first visit remains in 'Notes of a Visit to the Russian Church in the Years 1840-1841,' which was published by Cardinal Newman in 1882. William Palmer, though he failed in his object and became involved in a singular controversy, had good opportunities of examining the Eastern Church and of meeting its chief dignitaries. Lord Selborne, by drawing copiously upon his correspondence, leaves a distinct impression of character, and throws some side light upon Tractarian aspiration in the early forties.

Reared by such a father, influenced by such a brother, and surrounded on every side by a religious atmosphere, Roundell Palmer was compelled to take a stand either for or against Christianity in its Anglican form. We exclude indifference, because he was of a temperament too serious and scrupulous to admit that alternative. We are following the whole drift of this autobiography when we place religious matters first in Lord Selborne's heart and mind. Indeed, he fixes upon a certain religious experience as the crisis of his life:

"About this time I was approaching a crisis of mental suffering such as I had not before experienced and I have happily never since known. I needed disappointment and mortification to complete the discipline necessary for my soul's health, and on St. Matthew's Day, 1845, it came. I knelt alone on that day in a corner of a country church remote from my home, and offered prayers, which it pleased God, though not without a passage as through fire, to accept and prosper. Then it was that the want, in my particular case, of that medicine which our Church has provided for those overburdened souls who cannot quiet their own consciences, was brought home to me. The priest to whom I had recourse was a friend, whose opinion of me had always been better than I deserved, and to whom it was therefore a special humiliation to go. He administered to me, very lovingly, the consolation and counsel which his office entitled him to give; and I went away feeling like Christian in the 'Pilgrim's Progress' when the intolerable burden had fallen from his back, relieved from my spiritual trouble, and in some degree strengthened to bear the temporal cross which I had still to endure."

When writing in the above strain, Lord Selborne undoubtedly refers to a final act of self-conquest, for his letters conclusively show that in every year of his life, from boyhood on, he recognized the call of religious duty. 1845 was the year of Newman's secession and a time of heart-searching among all Oxford men of Palmer's generation.

ARETINO.

L'Italie du XVI. Siècle: L'Arétin. Par Pierre Gauthiez. Paris: Hachette et Cie. 8vo, pp. 438.

In April, 1492, the birth of a little girl, the descendant of kings, was welcomed in the French castle of Angoulême; in the same month of the same year a little Italian boy saw the light in a small two-story house in a narrow street of Arezzo. The little princess became a Queen, Queen Margaret of Navarre, and the little Aretine became *the* Aretine, Pietro Aretino. Conspicuous figures in their own day, they personify opposite sides of their times, and this not the less because of the strong individuality of their respective characters. Queen Margaret represents the high aspirations and generosities of the Renaissance, Aretino its audacities and degrading triumphs; and in the Queen's mysticism and the parvenu's insolence may be found a reflex action of the passions, the powerful wills and the mean motives that on every side were battling confusedly for the right and for the wrong. But the conditions in France and in Italy during the sixteenth century were so unlike that the Renaissance resembled a great orange tree bearing flowers and fruit at the same moment. Italy was ripe, almost beginning to decay, while France was still blossoming; and Aretino seems as if he had lived a generation later, or many generations later, than Queen Margaret. In some respects he is the contemporary of Voltaire, of Beaumarchais.

The critic Ginguené said, a hundred years ago, "Aretino is often spoken of, he is much despised, he is little known"; this is still true. An adequate Life of him has never been written. It would seem an easy and interesting piece of work to accomplish, for no man ever had more open or more picturesque relations with other men, and some mention of every person of importance in his day might be included in his story. But it has not been done. M. Gauthiez has not done it, but has written a volume about him which, though injured by a lack of familiarity with the Italian language, has enough ability and enough scholarship to dishearten any one else from taking up the subject for some time to come. But M. Gauthiez is confessedly an adorer of the "primitives"; his last page is a sigh of relief at escaping from Aretino's company and returning to that of Dante and St. Francis, and he is not to be blamed if his aversion to the personage he is portraying is felt in every page. Rather he is to be praised that it does not induce positive injustice, and his justice is marked in his treatment of one point, the gross licentiousness for which Aretino's name is almost a synonym. Aretino has been made one of the world's scapegoats for this sin. He was scarcely more guilty than such contemporaries as Firenzuolo, and Alessandro Picco-

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lomini, professor of moral philosophy at Padua, who died an archbishop; and revolting and entirely unreadable at the present day as some of his writings are, their indecencies are the reflection of the manners, at that time, of the papal court. M. Gauthiez points out that there were not lacking, among "the great," voluntary and pleased recipients of his worst offences in print against morals. Two hundred years later the French academician La Monnoye thought it well to translate them into Latin distichs. Within a few weeks M. Brunetière has remarked that "the Elzevirs printed no obscene books, with the exception of the Ragionamenti of Aretino in 1660, and no defamatory libels." This may be regarded as some indication of the estimate Aretino's works were held in by men of that date. It is to be remembered, also, that disgraceful writings were falsely ascribed to Aretino during his life and after his death. A singular mistake made by M. Gauthiez is an illustration of how easily, without ill-will, unfortunate falsities may take shape. He refers to Aretino as "l'homme dont on parlait jusque chez le Grand Turc, mieux encore, à qui l'on envoyait . . . une Turque belle et de prix." The letter he refers to as his authority reads: "Il Caorlino . . . mandavi una turchese bella e di prezzo"—a fine *turquoise!* A similar mistranslation, as entirely erroneous as this, and suggesting a still more serious charge, may be found on p. 160, accompanied by a sentence of contemptuous comment.

If M. Gauthiez's insight and capacity were as marked as his rectitude, his book would be more valuable than it is. It is not a vigorous presentation of Aretino's character, and gives no clear interpretation of his career, no sufficient explanation of his extraordinary position. It is therefore possible that a sketch—the slightest of sketches—may suggest some things wanting in this carefully executed portrait. First, it may be observed, Aretino was a "parvenu"; he was the greatest of that class the world has ever seen. Far more truly than he was *the* Aretino, he was *the* Parvenu, the illustration of the name. Moreover, he attained this height by a path peculiar to himself, original with him. M. Gauthiez speaks of him as "a true journalist." He was more than that; his letters—critical, satirical, eulogistic, ironical, written in *lingua volgare*, sometimes "editorials," sometimes "chroniques"—circulated everywhere, and were the organ, the sole organ, of interprovincial, international public speech. He invented the most powerful of modern instruments, he wielded its power, and in so doing he created himself—an incarnation of "the Press."

He was no wiser, he attained no greater heights, no nobler depths, than the English Thunderer—the thunderers everywhere—of to-day; but he alone then thundered and lightened over all Europe. He alone was "the Scourge of Princes," as he was styled by Ariosto. He was more venal than his successors, but he did not invent venality, and it did not die with him. And his venality, even his blackmailing, was often only "business"; it might even be called legitimate business. His rightful revenues, the earnings of his industrious and vigorous pen, came not from subscribers to his letters (as in later days with Grimm, the polite correspondent), but from donations from those to whom they were of service. Titian's pictures were often paid for by gifts of jewels and offices. Aretino never asked for the emoluments of public honors, but he gladly accepted gold in every shape (Erasmus did also)—wrought in splendid chains or cups or finger-rings, or not so treated—and he more gladly accepted beautiful pictures, statues, bronzes, medals, brocades, game, and fruit and wines. If these were not sent him on time, he dunned for them as for a bad debt, and threatened the delinquent. He sincerely felt they were *due* him. But he gave as freely as he received. He was not like a robber baron descending from his fastness, with his armed followers, to snatch indiscriminate booty; he was the Robin Hood of literature, though he had no troop at his back. He took from the rich to give to the poor. He was the Scourge of Princes, but he was the protector of artists, and his protection was graced by a skilled appreciation that ennobled his praise. In the fantastic phraseology of the day, he declared "avarice to be the tomb of the virtues, and liberality the funeral-urn of the vices," and he practised what he preached. His Venetian palace was as a great bazaar, in which the only bare room was the one in which he worked; the things that made it beautiful one day were gone the next; and from his possessions he sent splendid gifts to his "patrons," a Raphael to one, a Titian to another, a Sansovino bas-relief to a third, or a drawing by Moretto, mirrors of Eastern crystal, wonderful poignards and exquisite intagli. At the portals of the palace, as at the gates of a convent, was perpetual alms-giving. To his friends he was generous of better things, and with ardor and without stint he used his time and talents for them.

But he had larger virtues than those of liberality and friendship. He possessed, he had acquired by his own strength, intellectual virtues that are noteworthy in any age. Not only did he "dare to stem tyrannic pride," not only did he cast scorn on "the unco guid," but, before Burns, he knew and he declared

> "The rank is but the guinea stamp,
> The man's the gowd for a' that."

"True nobility," he cries, "derives from the spirit; the nobility of blood is of bastard birth." "Don't quarrel, my dear son," he writes to a friend, "with those who affirm that I am of low birth. For I claim the honor of having been born of mean parentage . . . and of being able to bestow nobility, although I myself have never received it." As Montaigne in his own person found a type of humanity, so Aretino in his own person found a type of the individual; and he proclaimed the rights of the individual, and won his cause. The individual—working the press—became the master of princes, kings, emperors, popes, and simulated the huge figure of Democracy. "I am a charlatan and no philosopher," he shouts in his strident tones; "my bag is full of things of no weight or value—audacities, coaxings, lies, tricks, odds and ends," while he might well have added to himself, with a meaning headshake, "If, like the sword of Brennus, I cast my bag into the balance, *Væ victis!*"

But the impression that all men in power were his enemies, and that the tributes to him were those of fear only, is an erroneous one. In saying just now that he had no one at his back, all that we meant was that he employed no paid "spadassins"; he was supported and sustained by a large body of the most remarkable men of his age. Setting aside the group of his distinguished artist friends, voices from every quarter applauded him and encouraged him. He published two volumes of letters written to him which do him honor, and this honor is secured by the fact. M. Gauthiez vouches for, that the published letters correspond accurately with those still remaining in manuscript. The many writers of these letters have few points in common save their high regard for the recipient of them. The signatures range from that of Giovanni delle Bande Nere, the great condottiere (of whose death-bed in 1526 one of Aretino's own letters is an admirable and moving description) to that of the Countess Veronica Gambara of Correggio, whose pure and pious days of courtly widowhood resembled, as did her studious girlhood, the life of her friend Vittoria Colonna. There are nine letters from her to Aretino, extending over four years, full of "the affection I feel and shall always feel for your great worth and for your virtues, unparalleled in these days." The Marchioness Pescara herself is represented in the collection by a civil postscript to a letter of her famous husband's famous kinsman Alphonso d'Avalos, Marquis del Vasto, whose own letters are numerous and all full of friendship. A letter from the great Constable of France, Anne de Montmorency, the greatest name of all, is addressed to the "Signor Aretino, he who makes known men's virtues and vices." Guicciardini, the future historian, writes of "the deserts of your virtue," and signs himself "as a brother"; and Michelangelo says, "I am much pleased at receiving your letter," and again, "I beg you to write to me," adding, "Kings and Emperors hold it as a high favor to be named by your pen."

The endless list of his friends, of those who befriended him, opens, naturally, in his youth, with the Medici, Leo X., and Cardinal Giulio (afterwards Clement VII.), and then comes the Duke of Mantua, to whom he was introduced by the delightful gentleman Baldassar Castiglione. In 1527 he went to Venice, and there, little known at first, he soon made himself so welcome to the highest personages of the city—the Doge Andrea Gritti, the great statesman, at their head—and he soon became so ardent a lover of the beautiful city itself, its waters and its skies (which he often depicts with charming enthusiasm), that for the remaining thirty years of his life it was his abiding-place. The King of France might offer him hospitality, Henry VIII. might invite him to England; but, barring a short excursion he made stirrup to stirrup with the Emperor, he would never quit Venice, save five or six months he spent in Rome in 1533, when Julius II., in full conclave, kissed him—a resounding kiss!—and a visit to Urbino in 1550, when he escorted his daughter to her husband's home, and was received by a body of cavalry eight thousand strong, sent by the Duke to meet him, and the city illuminated in his honor.

Such a man was not a mere scoundrel; his name does not deserve infamy only. His personal example may have done little or no good, public or private, but his vices were not unfamiliar to men. What was new was the power and width of his influence, and it has never been asserted that this influence was exerted in bad causes. In truth, it was not "causes" that interested Aretino; he was moved as a writer by irritation against "the upper classes," by indignation at the undeserved privileges of "the great." It was no sacred love of freedom of speech, it was the anger of an unjust man at the sight of injustice. But a ducal envoy could say: "We who spend our days in princes' service, and every courtier also, and other men too, know that if we are considered, and our deserts recognized by our masters, it is thanks to the castigations they have received from Pietro's pen." "Pietro" himself declared he deserved

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some little glory "because I have thrust truths into the presence and the very ears of the great, to the shame of flattery and falsehood." And Antonio da Leyva, Charles the Fifth's great general, said that Aretino was more useful to the world than all the pulpit preachers, for they instructed the common people only, while he directed princes. Such contemporaneous judgments have been in his case too much disregarded.

One name is not to be found among his friends—that of the Queen of Navarre. She and he were not "contemporaries" in any true sense, as has been already said, and they were not leagues but worlds apart. A translation of one of his religious works (of which there are several) was dedicated to her; she paid him no compliment in return. "I have never received anything from her, and I can hope for nothing," he writes. That sentence is perhaps his true verdict.

Travel and Talk, 1885-93-95. By the Rev. H. R. Haweis, M.A., author of 'Music and Morals,' etc., etc. 2 vols. London: Chatto & Windus; New York: Dodd, Mead & Co. 1896.

MR. HAWEIS'S contribution to the literature of international appreciation is not the least remarkable of many such. It is a monument to the good-nature of the American public and to its impartial generosity in its treatment of the gentlemen and scholars, on the one hand, and the adventurers and confidence men, on the other, who come over here to do a little lecturing. It affords fresh evidence of the absurdity of international comparisons based on individual peculiarities. "Broadly speaking," as Mr. Haweis himself remarks, "cultivated people are much the same everywhere." Even people who have had the best advantages differ more among themselves than the well-mannered of England and America differ from each other. It is greatly to be hoped that no American abroad has abused the privileges of hospitality more liberally than Mr. Haweis has done. What will the Bishop of Tasmania think and say when he sees in print the astonishing letter which he wrote to Mr. Haweis only last year? It wasn't a nice letter for a bishop to write, but that Mr. Haweis should publish it is passing strange—or would be if, before reaching vol. ii., p. 169, we had not ceased to be surprised at anything that Mr. Haweis might say or do. See vol. i., pp. 97-102, where he describes at length the peculiarities of a lady whose husband's name he prints in small capitals as one of three great Americans and his distinguished friend. See vol. i., pp. 103-6, where the wife of a New York college president is ridiculed for her too assiduous hospitality to a clergyman whom she had mistaken for a gentleman. Both of these ladies are dead, and Mr. Haweis is entitled to such excuse as there is in that; but should not the survivors have been considered, and his own prospects of future hospitality? He complains that on one of his later arrivals in this country no one met him at the wharf. If his book should be generally read, he might at his next coming find a crowd upon the wharf to meet him and wish him a speedy return.

He admits that his impressions of travel are "snap-shotty." How could they be otherwise, covering, as he did, 100,000 miles in his three journeys, and seldom stopping anywhere longer than was necessary to get off his lecture? This met with various fortune. In Australia he does not seem to have had a good time at all. The clergy of his own church fought shy of him—he thinks because they had not free admissions, but it is possible to imagine other and better reasons. In the rougher parts, his lecture being two hours long or longer, he had a recess in the middle for the men to go out and "liquor up." Mr. Haweis was never anything but scrappy, even in 'Music and Morals,' the book which gave him a deserved reputation, and here the touch-and-go of his itinerary makes him scrappier than ever. His notes were evidently not sufficient for his two volumes, for he has padded the first with some fifty pages of Mormon history, and the second with nearly 150 pages on the missions to the South Sea Islands. These, if their information could not be found in better shape elsewhere, would be the most valuable portion of his book. The fact that his grandfather, Rev. Thomas Haweis of Aldwinckle, Northamptonshire, was the founder of the Missionary Society, and Lady Huntingdon's chaplain, is his excuse for introducing so much matter foreign to the original purpose of his book. There are other things which could be better spared—notes from distinguished people accepting or declining his polite invitations, and such unconsidered trifles. Even when the hook was baited with several Cabinet ministers, bishops, and well-known writers, Phillips Brooks did not rise to it.

Mr. Haweis is frequently amusing, but oftener when he does not mean to be than when he does. He has some apt descriptions and tells some good stories, but they are generally old and he does not always tell them straight. He misapplies Phillips Brooks's "dear old moth-eaten angel," which did not, we think, originate with him; and he spoils the beautiful words of Emerson at Longfellow's funeral. His humor tends to coarseness, as do the manners of the book; "the railway nigger" being his designation for the porter on the Pullman car. He had a tragic time at Vassar, where he tried in vain to get a glass of sherry and had to put up with a cup of tea—"a sort of green decoction that tasted like verdigris." One of his Sundays was a web of mingled yarn. He went to the Church of the Holy Spirit in the morning, preached at Grace Church in the afternoon, went to hear Beecher in the evening "with Courtlandt Palmer the Agnostic and the charming Miss Ingersoll, daughter of the famous Anythingarian lecturer Colonel Ingersoll," and ended with a supper at Delmonico's with Andrew Carnegie. He complains that the canvas-back duck was not cooked. "The little mud-turtles in the soup" were more to his taste. He learned something at that dinner about the fondness of the canvas-back duck for wild celery, but in general the acquisition of exact information was not in his line. Joseph Jefferson is not nearer eighty than seventy; he is only sixty-seven. Bryant was not one of the Boston set of literary men. Beecher and Mrs. Stowe were not the two principal agents in the destruction of slavery, and the Mormon contribution to that event was not conspicuous. There is no "Stanford and Leland University" in California. "Emerson and Longfellow would none of Whitman" is unfortunately not true, Emerson's praise of Whitman long serving "the good gray poet" for his best advertisement. We have no "Nonconformists" in this country. Mr. Haweis could not preach for Beecher without the consent of Bishop Potter, and there are various indications that he imagines our Episcopal Church to be a State church and a branch of the Established Church of England. Naming our literary men, Bryant, Emerson, Longfellow, Whittier, Lowell, Hawthorne, Holmes, he says that they were "all abolitionists," but Holmes and Hawthorne he should have known were nothing of the sort. Long Island is not exactly "the New York Isle of Wight." And so on indefinitely.

The climax of Mr. Haweis's inaccuracies is his chapter xx., vol. i., "Charles Sumner." Only a few choice extracts can be given:

"It has been my privilege to know [besides President Cleveland] three other high-class politicians, Senator ABRAM HEWITT, the HON. JOHN BIGELOW, and Senator CHARLES SUMNER." "Charles Sumner has always been a fighter of monopolies and jobs, and monopolists and jobbers have revenged themselves upon him by shutting him out of office whenever they could. But somehow there is a vitality about integrity and pluck, and only last year [1895] Sumner went to Washington and defeated a pretty little Southern Pacific job at the instance and to some extent under the ægis of my good friend Mayor Sutro of Francisco. Sumner's name will for ever be associated in the politics of the nineteenth century with the noble fight he made against the postal and telegraphic monopoly scandals." "Sumner was in England in 1883." "I still remember Sumner's warm grip and moist eye as he shook me by the hand in 1893, after my last sermon in Francisco."

As Sumner died in 1874 it would appear that Mr. Haweis has confounded him with some one else, but he has "his characteristic card," signed "Charles Sumner," and written in 1883, when, having tried in vain to effect an entrance into Mr. Haweis's church in London, he "retired in good order." Evidently there is something here which requires clearing up.

Federation and Empire: A Study in Politics. By Thomas Alfred Spalding, LL.B. London: H. Henry & Co. 1896.

THE title of Mr. Spalding's book would lead us to expect another contribution to the literature of Imperial Federation, but it bears upon that subject only indirectly. It is rather a most interesting and effective argument for the federation of the three home kingdoms—powerful both from the vigor and directness of the style and from the thoroughness of the investigation of the facts of the case.

The argument is like this. Every one admits that the British Parliament is able to get through but a small portion of the business which seems imperatively demanded of every session. This paralysis of Parliament, as Mr. Spalding delights to call it, is not due to a rapid increase of imperial business, as one would naturally suppose at first thought, but solely to the pressure of local legislation. The fact primarily responsible is that each of the three kingdoms differs so widely from the others in its legal system and administration that separate legislation on a great variety of topics is needed for each. Theoretically this should make no difference, for, in the language of Prof. Dicey, whose defence of the present system Mr. Spalding makes the target of repeated attack, members of Parliament "have not been the delegates of special localities, they have not been English members, or Scotch members, or Irish members, they have been simply members of Parliament; their acknowledged duty has been to consult for the interest of the whole nation." That this theory is the exact opposite of the practice, Mr. Spalding most clearly demonstrates. In order to force through the legislation needed by their states—even though it might be vitally necessary legislation—the

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Scotch and Irish members have been forced to subordinate everything else to this purpose, and to take their position upon English and general questions not according to the merits of the case, since their own constituents held them to no direct responsibility in such matters, but according to the effect their stand upon these questions would be likely to have upon their own measures. Obstructive tactics have been resorted to for the same purpose. These facts can be most distinctly seen in the action of the Scotch and Irish members, but the evidence is conclusive that in certain ways the demands of separate legislation for England are even more responsible for the present paralysis of Parliament. The result has been two-fold—first declining attention to imperial (that is, foreign and colonial) business, just at the time when the rapid development of the empire has been constantly creating new demands, and, second, an abandonment of the principle that all laws shall be assented to by a majority of the representatives of those who are to obey them, and, with the loss of this, naturally a loss on the part of the representative of the sense of his responsibility to his constituents. These results tend to prove that the present situation is full of danger, not merely to the empire at large, but to popular government as well.

The force of the argument cannot be made to appear in an analysis like this. It is founded upon a most laborious and apparently thorough classification of all legislation since the union with Ireland in 1801, and of debates which failed to result in legislation, made clear in tables and graphic diagrams, and suggesting many most interesting conclusions besides those bearing upon the main argument. This classification exhibits both the increasing inability of Parliament to do business, and the lines of its action which are most affected by this paralysis, and it reveals the cause—the pressure of local business, mainly that of England, under such conditions that it is able to force imperial business out of the field.

Mr. Spalding argues that by these symptoms the federal system is indicated, as the physicians say, as the natural remedy. The Union has never been a real union. Each of the attached kingdoms retained in entire independence all its local peculiarities of law and administration. It gave up its parliament and received the privilege of sending a few representatives to the Parliament of the United Kingdom, which remained, however, in spite of these additions, in every essential particular the Parliament of England. It follows that the Parliament exercises in turn the functions of a State Legislature for each of the three states, and attempts to do federal and imperial business as well. What could be more simple than to relegate the separate state business to a separate state legislature, actually composed of the representatives of those concerned and responsible to them, and confine the federal Parliament to federal and imperial business?

To this point one follows Mr. Spalding's argument with ready agreement. But he goes further than to demonstrate his case. He believes, very correctly, that the English people can never be led to adopt a federal form of government merely by convincing them that it is a natural remedy for certain of their difficulties. They are afraid of it. The majority of English voters believe that it means dissolution, and apparently they cannot be convinced of the contrary by an appeal to American experience. They can be convinced only by constructing a form of federal government so modified that it is clear at a glance, even to the English mind, that it does not destroy but preserves the Union. Such a modified federal system Mr. Spalding attempts to construct, and this is not the least interesting part of his book.

He calls the Home-Rule bills "amorphous and illogical federation," but the terms apply with almost equal force to his own plan. Mr. Spalding seems conscious of this and seeks its justification, where indeed it is to be found, in the impossibility of going further, and in the necessity of going so far very slowly. He supposes that a first step could be taken by committing local state business in the present House of Commons to the representatives of each state, who, after the manner of a committee, should put the desired legislation into its final form, to be adopted then by the whole Parliament. Gradually it would become evident that they could be trusted to do this business in Dublin or Edinburgh, and that it might not be necessary for every state representative to be also a member of the federal Parliament. This method of growth and this result avoid two great difficulties, as the English regard them: there is no "inflexible" written constitution, and the judiciary has no power to declare an act of the Legislature void. Each state legislature, of one house, remains in theory an offshoot of the House of Commons. Its bills, therefore, go up to the House of Lords, which Mr. Spalding hints may be a House of Lords reformed according to a plan which he published some little time ago. It falls to the House of Lords to determine whether in any bill the local legislature has exceeded its powers. If it has, the bill is referred to the federal House of Commons. If not, it follows the regular course of all bills through the House. Local taxation, determined upon by the local legislature, is sent to the federal House of Commons and becomes a part of the imperial budget as now. It follows that every local act is constitutionally an act of the imperial Parliament, though put into form by a House of Commons composed only of representatives of the state concerned. As more fully developed by the author, this is a most interesting scheme.

The fear of the possible action of Ireland, if granted any degree of local independence, is at the bottom of the English fear of federation. If the relations between the Irish and the English were like those which now exist between the Scotch and the English, the task of explaining federation to the English voter and of leading him to adopt it would be far easier than it is. This fear of Ireland is the penalty which England is now paying for the misgovernment of Ireland.

Pioneers of Science in America: Sketches of their Lives and Scientific Work. Reprinted, with additions, from the *Popular Science Monthly*. Edited and revised by William Jay Youmans, M.D. With Portraits. D. Appleton & Co. 1896. 8vo, pp. viii, 508, 50 plates.

THESE biographical sketches are fifty in number, and the principle upon which the selection of them as representative of pioneering in American science is made is no doubt determined by the materials the editor had on hand from the *Popular Science Monthly*. At the same time there is a certain method and congruity in the collection, the subjects being men who were born from about the time of Benjamin Franklin down to about 1810, and while it is of course not pretended that these fifty comprise all the names that are entitled to like distinction, they are a very notable group, typical or illustrative of the men who may be said to have made science what it is in this country, on both the biological and physical sides of the same shield. The various personages are arranged in the order of their birth, from Franklin to David Dale Owen, 1706 to 1807; the dates of death run nearly to the present day, as that of Ericsson in 1889. With one exception, each biography is accompanied by a portrait, and these are, as Dr. Youmans informs us, "in every instance well authenticated." "In collecting materials for the *Monthly*," the editor adds, "no effort was spared to reach the most trustworthy sources of information. . . . The accuracy thus secured in the first instance has been made more perfect by a thorough revision of the matter for this volume."

It is certainly a useful and convenient volume, and reliable too, if we judge correctly of the degree of accuracy of the whole by critical examination of those cases in which our own knowledge enables us to form an opinion—for no reviewer could pretend to be personally informed in all these premises. One thing that the sketches bring out clearly is that, while fame and merit often go hand in hand, as in the instances of Franklin and Morse, solid scientific acquirements have not always won commensurate recognition from the world at large. Thus it happens that men whose wide renown is that of an Audubon or an Agassiz, here appear in line with others whose reputation, if not less enduring, is mainly in "mouths of wisest censure," like that of a Sullivant or a Lesquereux, scarcely known except in bryology and palæobotany. The most picturesque figure in the volume is that of C. S. Rafinesque, who seems likely to exercise the patience of naturalists for all time. We are tempted to particularize many other cases, but in so doing should be led far beyond reasonable limits. In general it seems to us that the handy volume is specially to be commended for setting in just historical perspective many of the earlier scientists who are neither very generally nor very well known, such as the two Bartrams, S. L. Mitchill, B. S. Barton, and C. A. Lesueur, who thus take their proper places in a line of worthies which reaches to our own times, and are clearly seen to have occupied in their day the same place in science that is now held by its recognized leaders. In this particular Dr. Youmans's plan works admirably, and the net result is so good that we hope the succeeding volume, at which the editor's preface hints, may soon see the light.

La Société Americaine. Par Prof. M. Dugard. Paris: Hachette & Cie.; New York: Lemcke & Buechner. 1896.

M. DUGARD came to the United States in 1893, and in four months saw something of New York, Boston, Philadelphia, Washington, Salt Lake City, San Francisco, and the intervening West, including Chicago. He is a thoughtful observer, and his report, though here and there exaggerated and inaccurate, is marked by that true French urbanity which always knows how to spare the vanity of those criticised, without missing its point. M. Dugard found many things to interest him, and some of those which struck him are worth our attention also. The quality which he declares to be the national trait most visible to a stranger is ebullient youthfulness, and in his chapter "Through the West" he makes very plain

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what he means. For instance, the American's ambition is as youthful as if the teachings of experience on the subject were quite worthless. "To live quietly, to content himself with little, to avoid devoting himself to the pursuit of wealth—all these precepts of ancient wisdom are unintelligible to him; the golden mean dear to the Latin poet would seem to him cheap and contemptible." Another indication of youthfulness is an "incredible facility" of changing one's occupation and place of abode; in older societies a fixed domicile is one of the great objects of life. In America not only is one's furniture light and movable, but one thinks nothing of moving his house. The author met one of these "habitations ambulantes" one day in San Francisco; mounted on *poutres de glissement*, "it moved rapidly and lightly through the streets, the exact symbol of a society in which everything is in motion." The American is restless, also, with a feverish restlessness. All these traits hardly go with the bourgeois qualities of prudence and economy; "time is the only thing which the American knows how to economize," and as for prudence! In Arizona the author had the good luck to be carried across an abyss in a railroad train by an engineer who "chanced" it apparently out of love of excitement, and then to hear an employee say to a friend, "I'll bet you a dollar another train doesn't get over," and the man laughed, "amused by recklessness which might have cost a hundred lives." As he is reckless, so the American is wasteful. Having fallen heir to immense riches of a new continent, he squanders them like a young spendthrift. These traits are not very wonderful, either, for America is a country of young people. The West has been built up by men under forty.

All this is true, and has been said by others; it must be added, however, that M. Dugard seems to have acquired while here a touch of the same youthful spirit which, as he says, leads, among other things, to exaggeration. "No precaution against accidents" is hardly fair as applied to the whole railway system of the United States, nor is it true that American purchasers are, as a rule, in too great a hurry to wait for small change. Exaggerations and mistakes such as these disfigure a book with an inaccuracy from which a little of the prudence which should mark the old when criticising the young would have saved it. Were it not useless to make the suggestion, we should also complain of the proof-reading. Foreign, and especially English, terms in French books always suffer strange transformations, which cannot but reflect on the author's familiarity with the language of the people he criticises. "To work among the poors," "boghey" (for buggy), a policeman's "cub," are all unnecessary blunders. The surprising thing is, however, that, notwithstanding exaggeration and mistakes of fact, the book as a whole gives an impression of the country which shows in the author a rather unusual critical capacity.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Aldrich, T. B. Judith and Holofernes: A Poem. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Ambrosius, Johanna. Poems. Translated by Mary J. Safford. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.50.
Barry, J. D. The Intriguers. Appletons.
Bronson, T. B. Coppée's On Rend l'Argent. Henry Holt & Co. 60c.
Coale, Mrs James C. The Cottage by the Sea. Baltimore: John Murphy & Co. 50c.
Cowles, J. L. A General Freight and Passenger Post. Putnams. 75c.
Dabney, Julia P. Little Daughter of the Sun. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1 25.
FitzGerald, Edward. Rubáiyát of Omar Khayyám. San Francisco: Dodge Book and Stationery Co.
Greenough, J. B. Allen and Greenough's Shorter Latin Grammar. Boston: Ginn & Co. $1.05.
Harris, W. T. The Spiritual Sense of Dante's Divina Commedia. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
International Journal of Ethics. Vol. VI. Philadelphia: *International Journal of Ethics.*
Jakemann, Prof. H. C. G. von. Goethe's Dichtung und Wahrheit. Selections from Books I.-XI. Henry Holt & Co. $1.12
Kingsley, Henry. The Mystery of the Island. New ed. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $1.25.
Lillie, Mrs. Lucy C. Elinor Belden; or, The Step-brothers. Philadelphia: H. T. Coates & Co.
Marquand, Prof. Allan, and Frothingham, Prof. A. L. A Text Book of the History of Sculpture. Longmans, Green & Co $1.50.
Myers, Rev. Cortland. Midnight in a Great City. Merrill & Baker.
O'Connor, Miss E. S. Tracings; or, A Reflection of Nature. Century Co. $1.
Oxley, J. M. The Boy Tramps; or, Across Canada. T. Y. Crowell & Co. $1 50.
Page, T. N. In Ole Virginia. Scribners. $2.50.
Parry, C. H. H. The Evolution of the Art of Music. Appletons.
Stowe, Mrs H. B. Uncle Tom's Cabin, and Key. 2 vols. Household Papers and Stories. [Riverside Edition.] Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. Each $1.50.
Sturgis, Russell. European Architecture: A Historical Study. Macmillan. $4.
Stüven, Hermine. Praktische Anfangsgründe. Boston: D. C Heath & Co.
Weeks, Rev. J. H. The Tin Kitchen. T. Y. Crowell & Co. 75c.
Williams, Nell W. The Bayonet that Came Home: A Vanity of Modern Greece. Edward Arnold.
Wise, Dr. P. M. A Text-Book for Training-Schools for Nurses. 2 vols. Putnams. $2.50.
Woods, Katharine P. John: A Tale of King Messiah. Dodd, Mead & Co.
Woods, Katherine P. The Crowning of Candace. Dodd, Mead & Co. 75c.

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